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BELLEAU WOOD

Where the marines stopped the Kaiser on his way to Paris. History will record it as one of the most critical moments of the war. So sure were the boches that nothing stood between them and Paris that they marched along the roads singing. They had yet to meet the fury of the charge of the 5th and 6th American Marines! The boches, bewildered and infuriated by the unexpected resistance, fought desperately but *they did not pass!*

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AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES
OFFICE OF THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF

France, May 9, 1919

My dear Mr. Beamish:

Your letter of recent date requesting that I write a foreword for your book "America's Part in the World War" has been carefully noted, and I shall be glad to accede to your request. It is important that every American should be informed of the part played by our country in the great war. A work of this kind, based on official records and actual experiences at the front, is well fitted to present a true picture of the immensity of American effort.

Never has the United States so fully demonstrated its ability to organize and act than in the last eighteen months of the world conflict. Never have we fought for a nobler cause nor for one involving more fundamental principles of justice. Our military achievements are worthy of the best traditions of the nation as our army has played a vital and decisive part in the final defeat of the most formidable military machine that ever menaced mankind.

From no sense of personal pride, but with a profound admiration for the heroic armies it has been my honor and privilege to lead, I heartily endorse a work that will bring home to every American the full greatness of American accomplishment.

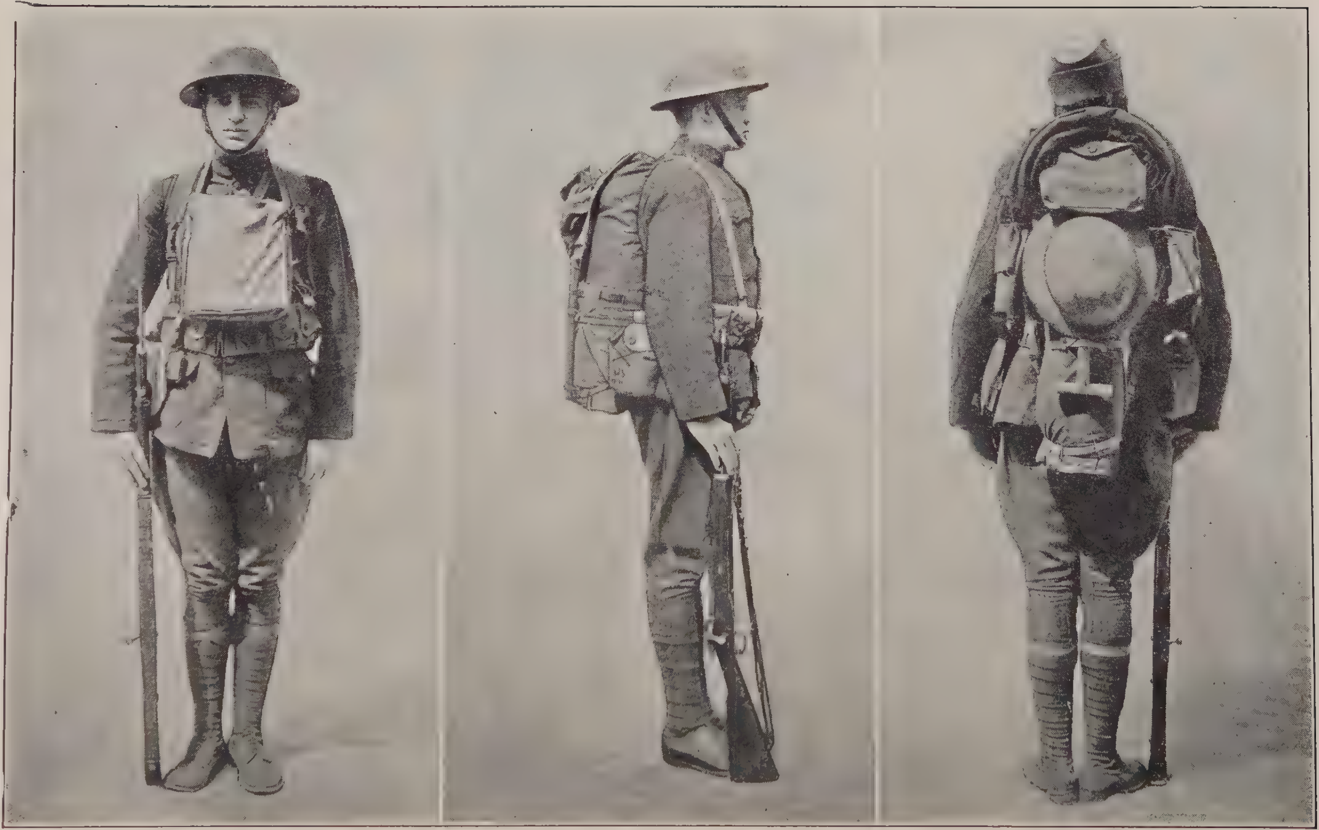
Sincerely yours,

John J. Pershing.

U. S. Official Photograph.

GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING

Commander-in-Chief of the American Expeditionary Forces.



U. S Official Photographs.

THE AMERICAN DOUGHBOY

Showing his equipment when prepared to go over the top, consisting of rifle, bayonet, web cartridge belt and suspenders, gas respirator, canteen, haversack, meat can, trench helmet, intrenching tool, overcoat and shelter half roll containing blanket, extra clothing, etc., a total of over sixty pounds which the average man would hardly care to lift to say nothing of fighting under.

PREFACE AND DEDICATION

AMERICA, peaceful, isolated and serene in the midst of international intrigues yet not embroiled in them, suddenly found itself in August, 1914, an international power. Although it did not enter the World War until April 6, 1917, its destiny was fixed when Gavrilo Prinzep on June 28, 1914, shot and killed the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary and Sophia Chotek, his morganatic wife. At first the web of circumstance binding the United States to the rest of the world as the consequence of that deed was gossamer fine. With German rapine in Belgium, the sinking of the unarmed Lusitania, the destruction of American lives and property through German plots and the growth of Teutonic militarism into a cloud that shadowed and menaced civilization, the filaments of the web grew into ropes and cables of steel drawing us irresistibly into the world conflict.

This book tells the story of that web and how America acquitted itself therein. Deeds are more eloquent than words. America's entrance tipped the scales against Germany; but the decision came after England and her great colonies, heroic France, Belgium, Italy and Russia had held the Teutonic coalition to a stalemate on the bloodsoaked fields of Europe.

America's share in the triumph of an idealistic civilization over a militaristic autocracy is told in these pages in narrative form. Every deed that is recited, every sacrifice that is set forth finds its warrant in the official records of the Great War. To read and become familiar with this record of unselfish devotion and noble achievement is a patriotic privilege and duty which should not be neglected by any true American. The examples of those glorious dead whose blood hallows the wheat fields at Château-Thierry, the dark depths of Belleau Wood and the forest of the Argonne must create in generations of Americans yet to be born ideals of democracy and of sacrifice that will continue the United States of America in the van of civilization.

Authoritative documents and maps aid the reader in following the tremendous world changes achieved through America's magnificent adventure in the cause of international liberty. Official photographs illuminate the text and carry the reader into the scenes where men's souls were tried in the fiery crucible of war.

DEDICATION

It is fitting that this history should be dedicated. Of all those who made possible the defeat of Germany, one stands above all others, and to him, I dedicate this book.

To the bravest of the brave; to one who took hardships gallantly; who left peace, prosperity and a happy home, ready to endure vermin, disease and privation on a foreign soil; to the man who bore wounds with a smile and who met death face to face serene and unafraid.

To the Yankee fighting man of every creed and color this history of "America's Part in the World War" is a tribute and a memorial.

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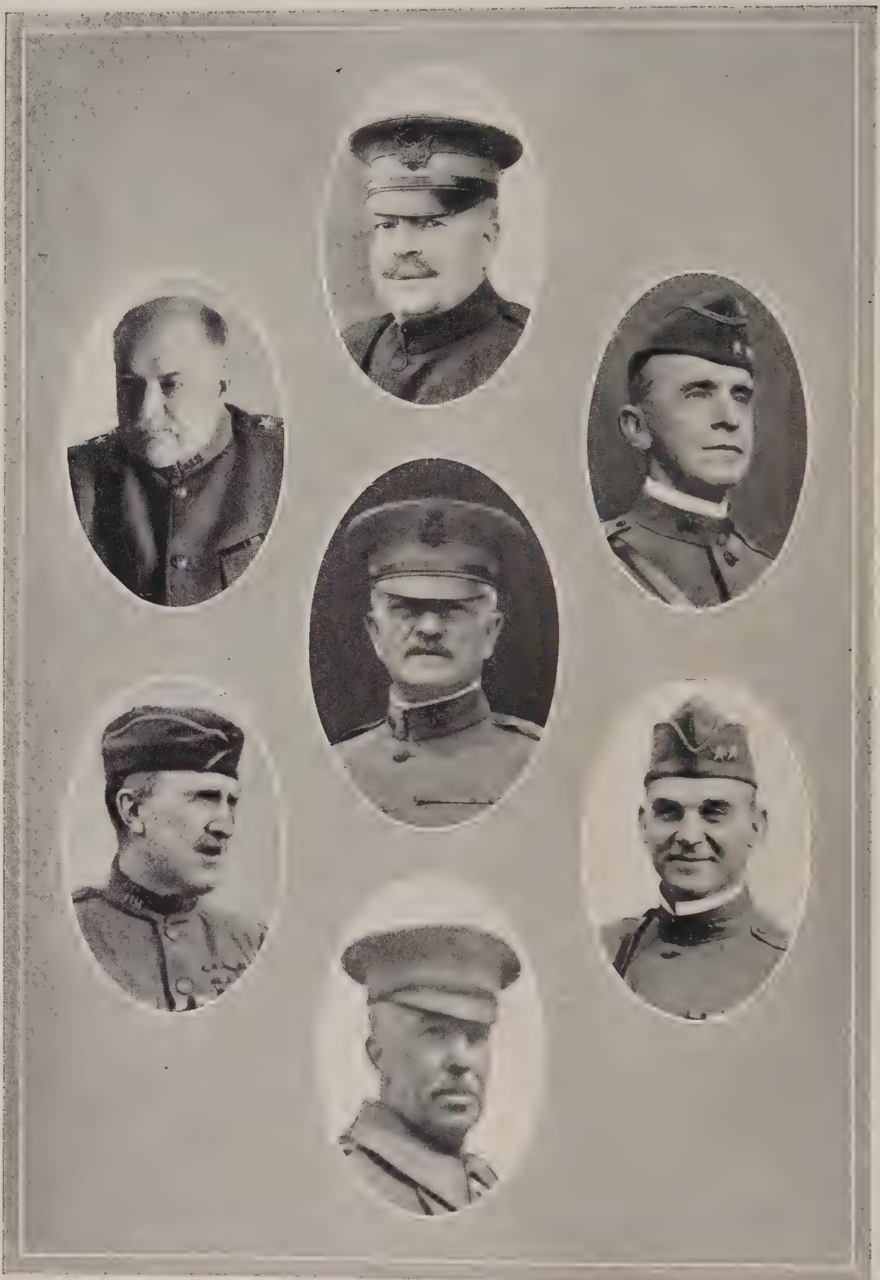
GENERAL PEYTON C. MARCH
Chief of Staff of the United States Army



AMERICAN CORPS COMMANDERS

Center: Gen. John J. Pershing, Commander-in-chief; *top row, left to right:* Lieut.-Gen. Hunter Liggett, 1st Army; Maj.-Gen. Jos. T. Dickman, 1st Corps; Lieut.-Gen. Robt. L. Bullard, 2d Army; *lower row:* Maj.-Gen. John L. Hines, 3d Corps; Maj.-Gen. Geo. H. Cameron, 5th Corps; Maj.-Gen. Chas. P. Summerall, 5th Corps.

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CHAPTER I

AMERICA REMAKES THE WORLD

"IF it had not been for America the war would not have been won."

These are the words of Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States. They were uttered on the Fourth of July, 1919, in an address by the President to soldiers and sailors on the United States transport, George Washington, during the voyage of the President and his party back from the Peace Congress in Versailles.

The President made this declaration after he had been in contact with official representatives of all the countries concerned in the World War. It came after conferences in which every shade of friendly and hostile thought had been developed. It was made after cool deliberation and with full knowledge that history would sit in judgment upon the words.

The pronouncement of the President represented more than the opinion of an individual. It contained the proud record of a nation which entered the world-shaking conflict with no idea of profit. The fighting force of the United States in the World War was a sword unsheathed for Democracy. The plain statement of the President had in it nothing of boasting. It was a plain narration of fact set down so that future generations of Americans might look for inspiration to the mighty deeds of those who struck the deciding blow against Germany that civilization might live.

Why did America enter the war? The immediate cause was the declaration by Germany of ruthless submarine warfare. But there was a greater cause, a reason having deeper roots and truer significance. President Wilson described the real underlying cause in that same Fourth of July address:

"America did not at first see the full meaning of the war that has just ended. At first it looked like a natural raking out of the pent-up jealousies and rivalries of the complicated politics of Europe. Nobody who really knew anything about history supposed that Germany could build up a great military machine like she did and not refrain from using it.

"They were constantly talking about it as a guarantee of peace, but every man in his senses knew that it was a threat of war, and the threat was finally fulfilled and the war began. We at the distance of America looked on at first without a full comprehension of what the plot was getting into, and then at last we realized that there was here nothing less than a threat against the freedom of free men everywhere.

"Then America went in, and if it had not been for America the war would not have been won. My heart swells with a pride that I cannot express when I think of the men who crossed the seas from America to fight on those battlefields. I was proud of them when I could not see them, and now that I have mixed with them and seen them, I am prouder of them still. For they are men to the core, and I am glad to have had Europe see this specimen of our manhood.

"I am proud to know how the men who performed the least conspicuous services and the humblest services performed them just as well as the men who performed the conspicuous services and the most complicated and difficult. I will not say that the men were worthy of their officers. I will say that the officers were worthy of their men. They sprang out of the ranks, they were like the ranks, and all—rank and file—were specimens of America."

America performed her mighty task with a patriotism fired by the loftiest of motives. The determination that carried it through to victory was of slow but steady growth. The seed of it was planted when German atrocities in Belgium shocked the civilized world. The wanton destruction of the Lusitania gave to that determination fibre and substance. Thereafter it was only a question of days until American indignation would compel a declaration of war against the Teutonic allies.

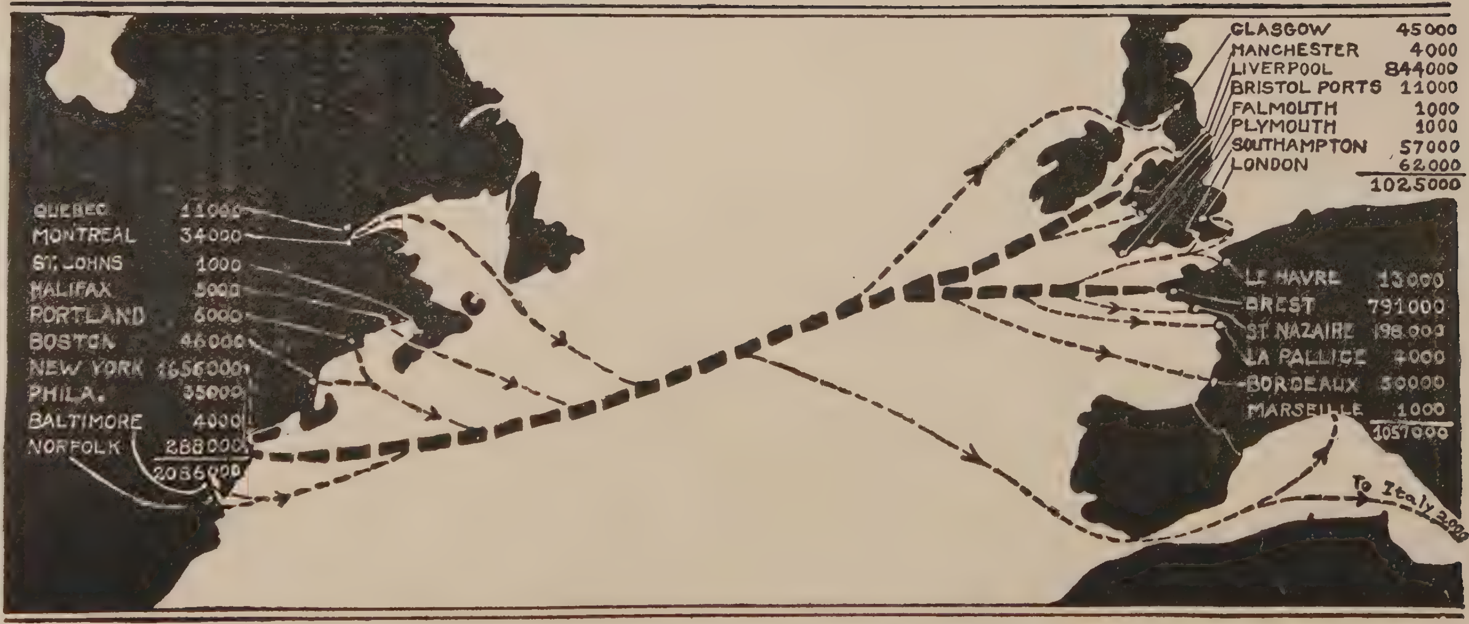
The armed forces of America called from all ranks in life made a thrilling demonstration of American vigor and efficiency. A total force of 4,800,000 men rallied to the colors of the army and the navy and the marine corps. Back of these stood a united nation resolved upon a victory that would forever remove the menace of autocracy from the world.

The maximum of America's effort naturally was exerted in France. There was the final battlefield, the chosen place where the hosts of militarism were overthrown by the armies of democracy. In that titanic conflict 2,084,000 American soldiers engaged, and of these 1,390,000 Yankee doughboys fought in the front line.

This mighty army scored the greatest offensive success of the war against Germany when in the battle of the Argonne forest, lasting forty-seven days from September 26th to November 11, 1918, it, in the words of General Pershing, achieved its object which was "To draw the best German divisions to our front and to consume them."

During its entire campaign in France, the American Army never retreated. At Château-Thierry, where the enemy had established a salient, the 2d and 3d Divisions of the American Army were thrown into a gap across the flood of the advancing German offensive. That offensive, flushed with victory and with a determination to end the war, was stopped dead in its tracks. Not only was the enemy halted, but the Americans immediately counter-attacked and wrested from the best divisions of the German Army the strongly fortified position of Belleau Wood, later named by the grateful French people "The Wood of the Brigade of Marines Vaux and Boüresches." This vigorous defensive and counter-offensive of the Americans stimulated the entire fighting force of the Allies. From that day there never was any question of an allied victory.

Coupled with these hammer blows on defensive and offensive came American efficiency in lifting man power and weight of munitions until both outnumbered and outweighed the utmost the Teutonic Allies could put into the field. More than 2,000,000 men were carried from America to France during our nineteen months of warfare. Of these more than a million and a half were transported in the last six months of the war, as against half a million in the first thirteen months. When transportation facilities had settled into a steady swing the average number of men sent to France was 10,000 a day.



Troops Sailing from American Ports and Landing in France and England

America produced 2,500,000 Springfield and Enfield rifles up to the time of the signing of the armistice, and sent overseas 1,500,000,000 rounds of rifle munitions. More than 20,000,000 rounds of complete artillery ammunition were produced in American plants, as against a total of 9,000,000 rounds produced in French and British plants. Throughout the war, even before America entered, the Allies fought almost wholly with American powder and high explosive. At the time of the signing of the armistice, the American production of smokeless powder was forty-five per cent greater than the production of the British and French combined.

Forty-two American divisions reached France, and of these, twenty-nine divisions participated in front line fighting. Of the divisions that did not participate, virtually all were used for replacements of men killed or wounded in the fighting or were just arriving in France when hostilities ceased. American divisions were under enemy fire in battle for two hundred days, and during this time they fought in thirteen battles of some magnitude. Two of these battles, those of St. Mihiel and the Argonne, were fought wholly by Americans, under American officers.

From the second week of October, 1918, until the end of the war, all of the twenty-nine active American divisions were engaged with the enemy. They held 101 miles of battle front, which was twenty-three per cent of the entire battle line. From the middle of August until the end of the war, they held a longer front of the battle line than that held by the British forces.

The advances of the American divisions against the enemy totalled 485 miles, an average advance for each of the twenty-nine divisions of seventeen miles. Most of this was achieved against the most desperate resistance of which the enemy was capable. The American forces captured 63,000 prisoners, 1,378 pieces of field artillery, 708 trench mortars and 9,650 machine guns. The total American battle losses of the war were 48,900 killed and 236,000 wounded. It was a terrific price paid in heroic lives and in wounds that in some cases were worse than death. But it purchased for the world a measure of true freedom such as the human race had never known.

The cost in lives to the United States was far less than that of any other of the principal combatants. The official tabulation of the United States War Department shows the following bloody total of deaths:

Russia	1,700,000
Germany	1,600,000
France	1,385,000
Great Britain	900,000
Austria	800,000
Italy	330,000
Turkey	250,000
Serbia and Montenegro	125,000
Belgium	102,000
Roumania	100,000
Bulgaria	100,000
United States	48,900
Greece	7,000
Portugal	2,300
Total	7,450,200

The cost of the war in terms of money to all the nations involved approximated $186,000,000,000. Of this staggering total, Germany spent $39,000,000,000 and the United States and its co-belligerents spent $123,000,000,000. The cost to the United States alone was approximately $22,000,000,000. In addition to this money that was actually spent by the United States, it loaned almost $10,000,000,000 to the Allies.

The maintenance and munitioning of the army cost more than $14,000,000,000. During the final ten months of the war, the daily expenditure of the United States for war purposes averaged more than $44,000,000. The total expenditures by the principal nations involved in the war were:

Great Britain and Dominions	$38,000,000,000
France	26,000,000,000
United States	22,000,000,000
Russia	18,000,000,000
Italy	13,000,000,000
Belgium, Roumania, Portugal, Jugo-Slavia	5,000,000,000
Japan and Greece	1,000,000,000
Total United States and Allies	$123,000,000,000

Germany	$39,000,000,000
Austria-Hungary	21,000,000,000
Turkey and Bulgaria	3,000,000,000
Total Teutonic Allies	$63,000,000,000
Grand total	$186,000,000,000

But while America struck the deciding blow, sight must not be lost of the heroism displayed by British, French, Belgian, Russian, Italians, Serbs and other Allies when the Teutonic hordes were fresh and all-powerful. Americans will be false to themselves if they fail to recognize that Germany would have triumphed early in the war had it not been for Belgium's first sacrificial onslaughts against the advancing tide of Germans and Austrians; Russia's fine first effort against the Germans, Austrians and Turks; the immortal glory of the defence by France at Verdun and along the entire fighting line when hope seemed dead and ruin gaped everywhere; the deathless courage of English, Scotch, Irish, Welsh, Canadians and Australasians who held on with bulldog tenacity while whole families of fathers and sons were wiped out in the bloody welter and regiments melted like wax in a flame.

No one nation won the war. It was a co-partnership of glory. While the loss of America was less than that of any other great power because of its late entrance into the war, it still was so heavy that it created throughout the land an overwhelming sentiment against future warfare and a determination to shape a treaty of peace that would remake the world along lines tending away from conflict and toward better human understanding between nations.

In such spirit was the treaty of peace concluded between the United States of America and the Allies on the one side and the German Government on the other side. That treaty remade the world. It was signed at Versailles on the twenty-eighth day of June, 1919 and was immediately referred to all the signatory nations for ratification. Under that compact autocracies crumbled and democracies arose. Old nations disappeared and new states took their places. The map of the world was torn apart and reshaped.

Germany the aggressor in the World War suffered heavy penalties. The following table shows the losses sustained by the German Empire in areas and population.

	Sq. Miles	Population
Alsace-Lorraine, to France	5,680	1,874,014
Sarre Coal Basin, to League of Nations	738	234,200
Schleswig, to Denmark	2,787	693,984
Posen and part of Silesia, to Poland (including port of Danzig)	28,412	8,440,379
Malmedy, to Belgium	382	119,184
Total Losses in Europe	37,999	11,361,761
LOSSES OF HER COLONIES		
Togoland	33,668	1,003,612
Kamerun	305,019	3,501,537
German Southwest Africa	322,432	102,586
German East Africa	384,170	7,515,666
New Guinea (Exclusive of the Ladrone Islands)	92,244	545,478
Caroline Islands	560	39,000
Marshall Islands	158	16,000
Ladrone Islands	420	10,000
German Samoan Islands	993	37,980
Kiao-Chau (China)	213	196,470
Total of Colonies	1,139,877	12,968,329
Grand Total	1,177,876	24,330,090
GERMANY IN EUROPE		
Before the war	208,825	64,925,993
After the war	170,826	53,564,232

Austria-Hungary's and Turkey's losses in territory and population were even greater in proportion to their totals before the war than were the losses of Germany. Turkey was virtually eliminated from Europe, and great stretches of territory in Asia Minor were severed from her control. Austria-Hungary was dismembered, and Germanic Austria became one of the least considerable and powerful nations of Central Europe. Bulgaria was penalized for its share in the Teutonic assault upon civilization by the loss of both wealth and territory. Russia's revolutionary explosion resulted in the creation of a number of new independent states.

According to the most authoritative or official statistics, the deaths directly due to the war or indirectly inflicted by it number between 16,000,000 and 20,000,000, over 7,000,000 of which were military and over 10,000,000 civilian. Of the civilian deaths, over 100,000 were directly caused and nearly 10,000,000 indirectly caused by it.

In the first category of civilian deaths there were the 692 Americans and the 20,620 British subjects killed at sea, 1,270 British victims of air raids, 30,000 Belgian and 40,000 French victims of German atrocities, and 7,500 neutral victims of the U-boat. The second category includes 1,085,441 Serbs dead through starvation or disease, 4,000,000 deaths from influenza and pneumonia, beyond the normal figure, and the 4,000,000 Armenian, Syrian, Greek, and Jewish victims of the Turks. The following table, based on the official reports, has been brought up to date as far as possible.

ALLIED AND ASSOCIATED POWERS

Nation.	*Mobilized.*	*Dead.*	*Wounded.*	*Prisoners or Missing.*	*Total Casualties.*
United States:					
Army	3,665,000	77,592	214,158	4,756	296,506
Navy	529,504	1,142	....	......	1,142
Marine Corps	78,017	1,609	2,513	57	4,179
British Empire:					
United Kingdom	5,397,061	515,890	1,660,343	338,305	2,438,179
Canada, &c	552,601	60,383	155,799	4,000	220,182
Australia, &c	336,000	54,431	156,000	3,401	290,191
* India	1,215,338	28,000	60,000	13,439	101,439
† R. Navy. (Inc. in U. K.)		33,361	5,183	1,222	39,766
France	7,500,000	1,385,300	2,675,000	446,300	4,506,600
Italy	5,500,000	460,000	947,000	1,393,000	2,800,000
Belgium	267,000	20,000	60,000	10,000	90,000
Russia	12,000,000	1,700,000	4,950,000	2,500,000	9,150,000
Japan	800,000	300	907	3	1,210
Roumania	750,000	200,000	120,000	80,000	400,000
Serbia	707,343	322,000	28,000	100,000	450,000
Montenegro	50,000	3,000	10,000	7,000	20,000
Greece	230,000	15,000	40,000	45,000	100,000
Portugal	100,000	4,000	15,000	200	19,200
Total	39,676,864	4,882,008	11,099,903	4,946,683	20,928,594

* These figures include both Indian and British-Indian, the former being mobilized to 953,374.

† To the British naval losses should be added those of the British merchant marine—killed, 14,661; captured, 3,295.

CENTRAL POWERS

Nation.	*Mobilized.*	*Dead.*	*Wounded.*	*Prisoners or Missing.*	*Total Casualties.*
Germany	11,000,000	1,611,104	3,683,143	722,522	6,066,769
Austria-Hungary	6,500,000	800,000	3,200,000	1,211,000	5,211,000
Bulgaria	400,000	101,224	152,399	10,825	264,448
Turkey	1,600,000	300,000	570,000	130,000	1,000,000
Total	19,500,000	2,812,328	7,605,542	2,074,347	12,492,217
Grand total	59,176,864	7,694,336	18,705,445	7,021,030	33,420,811

French "effectives" at various periods in the war are officially stated to have been 3,872,000 on August 15, 1914, increasing to approximately 5,000,000 by February, 1915, and remaining at nearly 5,200,000 from January, 1916, to the end of the war.

The American Army General Staff announced 515 casualties in Russia with the strength of 3,073 at Archangel and 8,460 at Vladivostok.

According to statistics published by the *Secolo* of Milan, Italy during 1918 had 800,000 deaths caused by grip, averaging sixty per cent more than the deaths caused by the whole war. The same paper estimated the deaths by grip throughout the world were double the deaths caused by the war.

United States War Department gives total army and marine corps casualties as 302,645, with the following list in regard to the army:

Killed in action	34,089
Lost at sea	734
Died of wounds	13,941
Died of accident	5,260
Died of disease	23,568
Total	77,592
Wounded (85 per cent returned to duty)	214,158
Missing and prisoners (not including prisoners released and returned)	222
Prisoners released and returned	4,534
Total	296,506

More than victory came from the World War to America. Understanding, brotherhood between the United States and the awakening democracies of Europe, a new sense of international responsibilities came into being.

It remained for the departure of General Pershing from France on the transport Leviathan, September 1, 1919, to bring forth expression of this brotherhood.

Marshal Foch came aboard the transport shortly before she sailed and made a feeling address to the departing American commander, in which he said:

In leaving France, you leave your dead in our hands. On our soil we will care for them religiously and zealously, as bearing witness of the powerful aid you brought us. These dead will bring from America many thoughts of remembrance and pious visits and will bind still more strongly our already close union.

Recalling with emotion the hours we have lived together—some of them full of anguish, some glorious—I am struck hard in the heart in passing with you the last moments of your stay among us. In your arrival, you said: "Lafayette, we are here." Allow a French soldier of today to return thanks to you, and in a few words recall the work you have done for the rights and liberty of the world. . . .

This army, raised in all haste, with still only elementary instruction, recently organized and commanded by young officers, without military tradition, passed rapidly into your hands. You have shown yourself to be in the largest sense organizer, soldier, chief and great servant of your country, crowning the generous efforts and noble spirit of America with victory by your armies.

If the clouds of war should gather again in the future, would not these dead rise from their tombs and make their voices heard once more by a world which already knows that the same cause, the cause of liberty, has united us since the time of Washington and Lafayette?

Readjustment after the armistice and before the formal signing of the Peace Treaty by all the belligerents was a slow and painful process. While the armistice brought hostilities to an end, actual demobilization of the fighting forces of America was not completed until almost a year later.

For Americans generally, the return to this country of General John J. Pershing and of the famous 1st Division, first overseas and last to return, symbolized the end of the war and the beginning of a new era of peace. Two memorable parades of the 1st Division in complete war panoply, with tanks, artillery, field kitchens, supply trains, etc., gave to New York and Washington on September 10th and 17th, respectively, an idea of the power and completeness of an army equipped for modern battle.

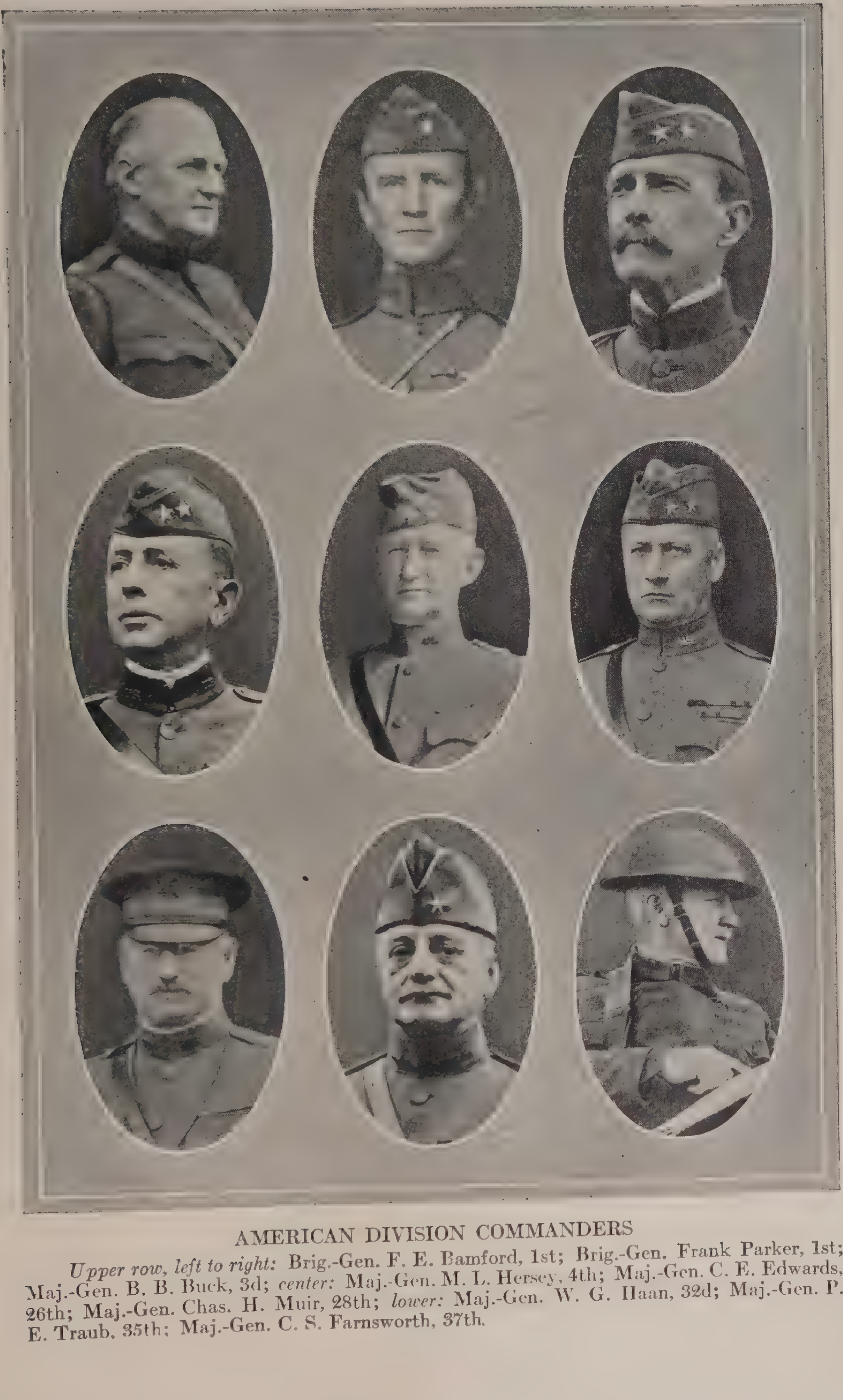
Imperial Cæsar, returning from a victorious campaign, captive kings and the rich loot of conquered nations in his train, was never hailed in victory-crazed Rome with such wild acclaim, such general and generous welcome as that which came on September 8, 1919, to commander-in-chief of America's battle hosts, General John J. Pershing, in the crowded canyons of New York.

For Rome was a little town beside this gigantic metropolis of modern democracy and few of those who welcomed Cæsar knew the story of his conquests or cared how or why the victories came. But the throng that made the cliff-buildings of lower New York a vibrant frame of color, motion and sound, saw in the soldierly figure of Pershing a symbol of the great army that fared fearlessly overseas, leaving thousands of its dauntless boys in French graves.

When the line of automobiles with General Pershing in the place of honor beside Rodman Wanamaker, chairman of the Mayor's Committee of Welcome, swung from Battery Place into that tremendous man-made chasm of lower Broadway, the very air suddenly seemed to vibrate with the electric energy of America's welcome. From every window of the sky-scraping cliffs came confetti, spirals and showers of paper, so that looking up Broadway in the half mist of the morning it seemed that the atmosphere had mysteriously become visible; a shimmering, moving mass in which crystals and streamers eddied and swirled. The sensation was that of suddenly putting New York under a giant's fluoroscope.

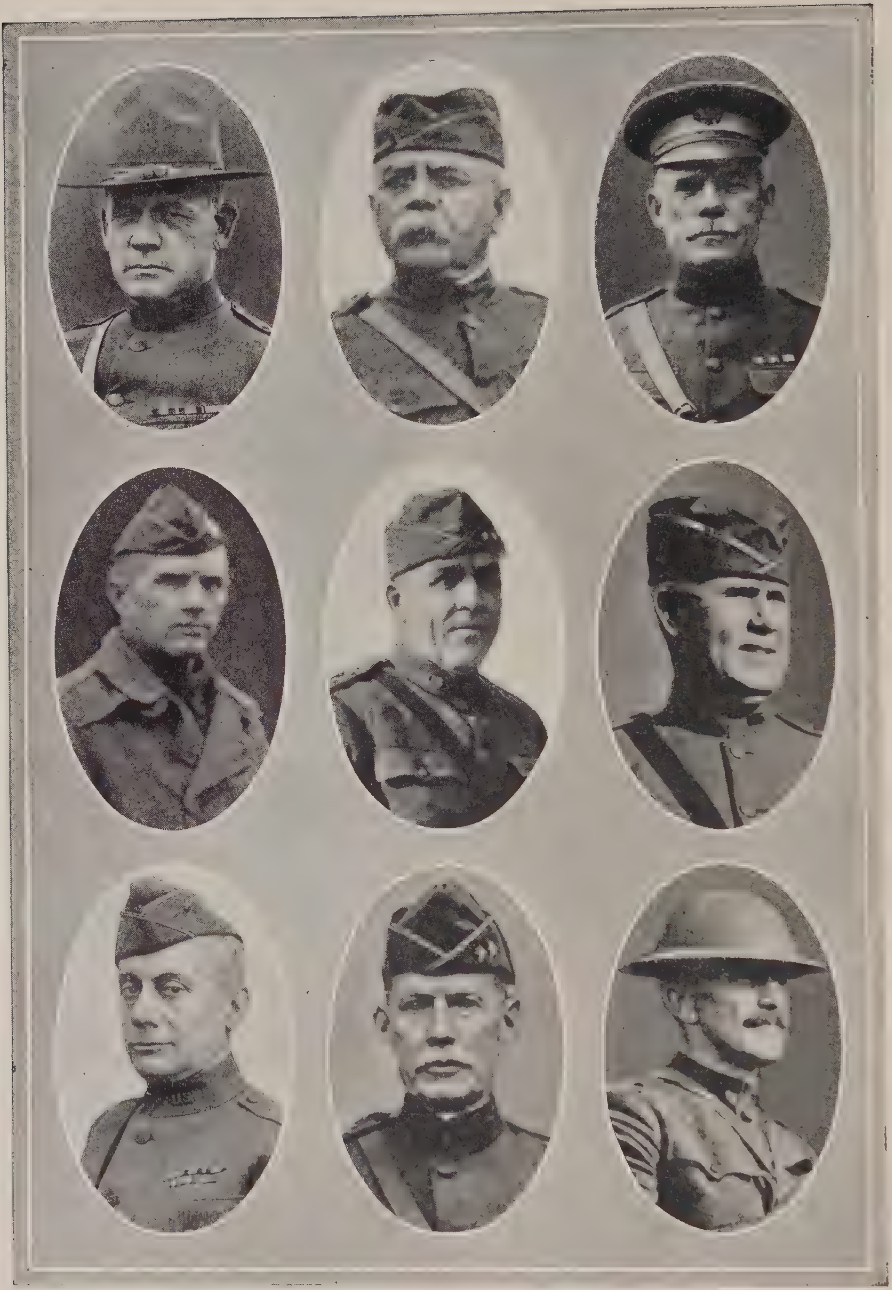
And the noise, the marvelous heart-catching blend of women's shrieks, the deeper note of men yelling as compelledly as wild things cry to the moon. Out in the harbor, tugs, ferryboats, liners, all sorts of craft, were shrieking in ear-torturing dissonance, their whistles tied wide open. Ashore, the compulsion of motion had pulled open the whistles of humanity and had tied wide apart the valves and clutches of repression. In the first automobile Pershing stood erect in his flawlessly fitting khaki, his Sam Brown belt as smooth upon him as though it had been painted upon his magnificent torso. His right arm chopped salutes to right and left with the slashing stroke of a *beau sabreur*. Not since the news of the armistice was there a crowd so affected as that mass which was banked solidly from curb to building line and stood row upon row at every window.

Here was a girl in the late teens, evidently a stenographer. Her clenched fists were pressed side by side against her breast so hard that it seemed they must bruise the flesh. Down her pale face the tears poured unheeded in streams. She was not



AMERICAN DIVISION COMMANDERS

Upper row, left to right: Brig.-Gen. F. E. Bamford, 1st; Brig.-Gen. Frank Parker, 1st; Maj.-Gen. B. B. Buck, 3d; *center:* Maj.-Gen. M. L. Hersey, 4th; Maj.-Gen. C. E. Edwards, 26th; Maj.-Gen. Chas. H. Muir, 28th; *lower:* Maj.-Gen. W. G. Haan, 32d; Maj.-Gen. P. E. Traub, 35th; Maj.-Gen. C. S. Farnsworth, 37th.



AMERICAN DIVISION COMMANDERS

Top row, left to right: Maj.-Gen. Chas. T. Menoher, 42d; Maj.-Gen. Robt. Alexander, 77th; Maj.-Gen. James H. McRae, 78th; *center:* Maj.-Gen. Jos. E. Kuhn, 79th; Maj.-Gen. C. J. Bailey, 81st; Maj.-Gen. Geo. B. Duncan, 82d; *bottom:* Maj.-Gen. Wm. M. Wright, 89th; Maj.-Gen. Henry T. Allen, 90th; Maj.-Gen. Wm. H. Johnston, 91st.

weeping as we understand weeping. Her eyes shone big and brilliant and her lips moved in a repetition of one phrase. "Thank God, Thank God," she said without ceasing. Then there was the picture of the big policeman near Fulton Street whose fallen arches and ample girth proclaimed him a veteran of the force. A mere link he was in the human chain holding back the shrieking, pressing throng but as Pershing passed he suddenly went stark jumping mad, mad with emotion, with joy. No college cheer leader whipping his yelling mates to new atrocities of shrieks could hope to match the efforts of this red-faced, ancient, blue-clad man of peace and law.

"Come on now, let's ye'all yell, shout ye a—a—Yo—O—O." His big arms rose and fell like blue flails beating the rhythm for his yells, and the crowd went crazy with him. Surely he had a son or two in the thick of the Argonne. At a guess they were in that famous old fighting 69th and the fighting blood in him had risen at the sight of Blackjack Pershing as the hackles of a fighting terrier rise when battle is near.

But there were thousands of emotional jewels in that great human mass from wherever the victorious processional was set. Boys, rigid in the ecstacy of the moment, mothers whose faces showed their happiness, bookkeepers whose flat chests swelled suddenly and whose bodies straightened with a snap unconsciously as Pershing's vigorous erectness passed before them. And so the processional of triumphant democracy passed through the heart of New York, in a larger sense, through the heart of America, bearing at its head, to receive a formal welcome at City Hall, the symbol of America militant, the home-returned captain of its battle hosts, John J. Pershing.

CHAPTER II

SIGNS BEFORE THE STORM

AMERICAN lives and American property were lost in the red welter of the World War long before President Wilson led the nation into the battle line. Before Germany's momentous declaration of ruthless submarine warfare provided the reason for the rupture of diplomatic relations, it was recognized in Europe and America that America inevitably would become a belligerent.

The cause lay as far back as June 28, 1914, when Gavrilo Prinzep, a student in his twenty-first year, shot and killed Francis Ferdinand, heir presumptive to the thrones of Austria and Hungary, and his morganatic wife, Sophia Chotek, Duchess of Hohenberg. The assassinations were committed on the occasion of a state visit by the royal party to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia.

Prompted by the German High Command, Austria immediately took the position that the Serbian Government was directly responsible for the murders and demanded that authority be granted to Austria to participate as prosecutor and judge in proceedings against everybody accused of connection with the crime. Other demands concerning anti-Austrian sentiment in Serbia were granted notwithstanding their arrogant tone and Serbia asked for further discussion of the demand for Austrian participation in judicial proceedings.

The German High Command which pulled the political strings in Austria as well as in Germany, following a secret conference in the imperial palace in Potsdam, directed that Serbia's pacific efforts should be swept aside and that Austria must declare war upon the Serbian people. The German war party was ready. The Potsdam conference had decided that "The Day" had arrived, the day for which militaristic Germany had planned and for which its officers, soldiers and sailors had made Spartan sacrifices for more than forty years. It was recognized that Russia would surely espouse the cause of Serbia and that France, true to its treaty obligations would aid Russia. But what of that? The Russian frontier had been set with pitfalls by Von Hindenburg. The plan of campaign against France had been ready for more than a decade. It involved the violation of Germany's solemn covenant with Belgium and the invasion of that friendly little nation, but no sense of honor troubled the Potsdam plotters.

Sir Edward Grey, acting for the British Empire through the British Foreign Office, strove mightily with Russia, Germany, Serbia and Austria to avert the world-shaking catastrophe of war. For a time, it seemed his efforts would be successful, but Germany, resolved upon battle and ready to launch the stroke that was relied upon by its leaders to rivet German Kultur and the principle of military autocracy upon the world, decreed a war that was to violate sacred treaties and drench the world with innocent blood. England's conciliatory efforts were brushed aside impatiently and the mobilization of Germany's conscripted millions went forward silently, remorselessly.

Russia's concentration of troops along the Austrian and German frontiers was made the excuse for a formal declaration of war on Saturday, August 1st. The German Kaiser was in Norway on a vacation yachting trip during the diplomatic preliminaries, but no doubt existed in any of the capitals involved that he was fully cognizant of all the moves of the German High Commands leading to the declaration of war against Russia.

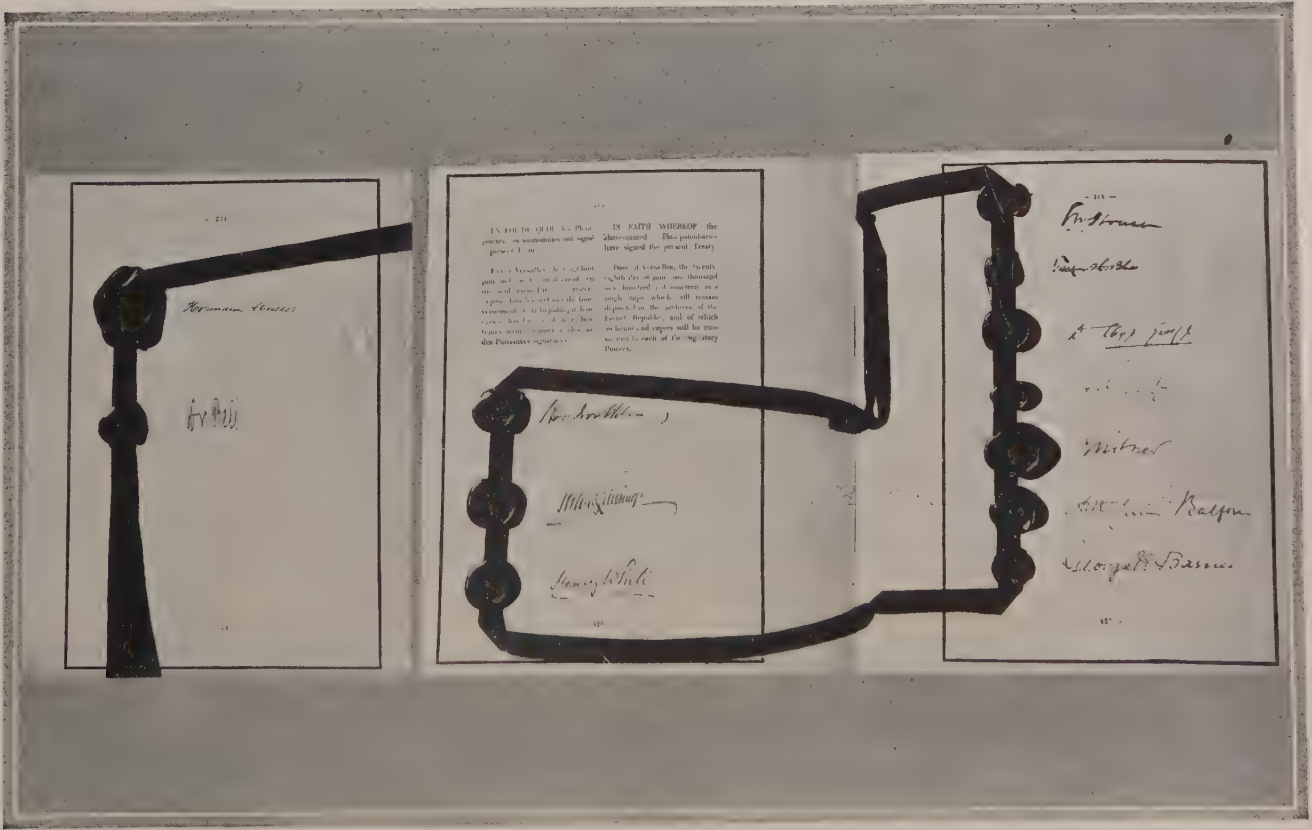
Peace of the entire world was shattered by Germany's declaration of war upon Russia. France immediately prepared for action. It was recognized by that Republic that she must come to the aid of her ally, Russia. Indeed, if she had not, Germany was prepared to invade French soil without such a pretext. While the declaration of war was against Russia, the first German blow was struck against France

The utmost efforts of both France and Germany were immediately directed toward England. Germany wished to keep the British Empire out of the war. The hope of France lay wholly in bringing England in as her ally in accordance with her treaty obligations. The German Government in a formal note to Great Britain, offered guarantees for Belgian integrity if Belgium did not ally herself with France. Germany also guaranteed to respect the neutrality of Holland, and assured England that no French territory in Europe would be annexed if Germany won the war, provided England remained neutral. Sir Edward Grey in a formal note on July 30th, characterized the German proposition as "a shameful proposal" and rejected it.

President Poincaré of France on July 30th, formally asked for an assurance of British support. The British Ambassador to France and King George of England sent qualified refusals upon the ground that they wished to maintain England's position of neutrality in an effort to avert the war. England then sent a note to France and Germany requesting a statement of purpose upon the question of Belgian neutrality. France immediately replied that it would respect every provision of the treaty of 1839, and its reaffirmation in 1870. This guaranteed the neutrality of Belgium. Germany replied on August 1st that it would respect the same treaty if England stayed out of the war.

England's first warlike act was the decision by the British Cabinet on August 2d that if the German fleet attempted to attack the coast of France, the British fleet would intervene. To this Germany replied on the following day, agreeing to refrain from naval attacks on France if England would remain neutral. This declaration however, had been preceded on August 2d by Germany's notice to Belgium of its intention to enter that country for the purpose of attacking France. On the same day, Belgium appealed to the British Foreign Office for aid and was informed that Germany's invasion of Belgium would be followed by a declaration of war by England upon Germany. Belgium thereupon declared its purpose to defend its soil against foreign invasion by any nation.

The overt act which brought England into the war was committed on the morning of August 4th, when twelve regiments of Uhlans crossed the frontier near Vise, and



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SIGNATURES WHICH ENDED THE WAR

Exact reproduction of pages 213, 214, and 223 of the Peace Treaty signed at Versailles June 28, 1919. On page 223 are the signatures of the German delegates, Müller and Bell. On page 213 is President Wilson's signature, opposite his individual seal. Then follow the names of the remaining American delegates and those of the British envoys.

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WHEN THE BOYS CAME MARCHING HOME AGAIN

The Historic Parade of the First Division, led by General Pershing, welcomed home from overseas by millions in New York. The First Division was the first in line and the first to enter an active sector. It reached France in June, 1917.

drove a small Belgian force back upon the defenses of Liége. Upon receipt of that news, England sent an ultimatum to Germany demanding withdrawal of German troops from Belgium and fixing midnight of August 4th as the time limit of the ultimatum. No reply was made by Germany and the formal declaration of war by England came at midnight.

American citizens immediately suffered from the world-shaking catastrophe of war. Thousands were caught in the huge maelstrom which centered in continental Europe Railroads were seized for war purposes by France, Germany, Austria and Russia. Even neutral Switzerland and Holland were caught in the gigantic whirlpool. Americans found that negotiable paper of all kinds had suddenly lost nearly all its value and that even silver currency was difficult of negotiation. Continental Europe demanded gold and nothing but gold. Americans traveling for business or pleasure found themselves suddenly cast upon the resources of the American embassies. These havens of refuge became centers of excited, anxious throngs, waiting for passports, money and for means of transportation which under the stress of war had become almost hopelessly disorganized. Food prices trebled and quadrupled. The gay capitals of Europe suddenly went dark and somber. Americans in their rush for the shelter of consular offices and embassies were tossed like chips upon the tremendous torrent of war mobilizations.

Stock exchanges throughout Europe closed their doors and the exchanges throughout the United States followed this example. Ship insurance multiplied several times. Every train and every ship leaving the centers of European disorganization were crowded past the point of discomfort.

In this emergency American individuals and the American Government performed notable services in rescuing their countrymen caught in the maelstrom of war. The armored cruiser Tennessee was sent by the American Government with $7,500,000 in gold consigned to the Americans who were virtually penniless in European countries due to depreciation in their negotiable paper. This depreciation brought many wealthy Americans to the verge of poverty. Oscar Straus, whose fortune exceeded $10,000,000, was stranded in London with nine dollars. His letters of credit were valueless when he attempted to cash them in Vienna.

The demand for gold by both sides of the warring powers bade fair to drain North and South America of the precious metal. The premium on gold soared to record-breaking heights. A number of shipments of gold were made from South American ports to Germany. The German ship Kronprinzessin Cecile was sent from New York with a cargo of gold consigned to Hamburg. A wireless warning from the station at Tuckerton, New Jersey, that Allied cruisers were awaiting the ship off the Grand Banks of Newfoundland caused it to turn back to America.

With the return of American tourists and business travelers from Europe, America settled into a condition of watchful neutrality. While a ring of battleflame encircled it, the United States through President Wilson, the State Department and Congress, endeavored to bring order out of chaos, peace out of war. How formidable that task was may be seen by a survey of the following list of war declarations and severances of diplomatic relations. The list is taken from the official files of the United States State Department:

DECLARATIONS OF WAR

Austria against Belgium, August 28, 1914.
Austria against Japan, August 27, 1914.
Austria against Montenegro, August 9, 1914.
Austria against Russia, August 6, 1914.
Austria against Serbia, July 28, 1914.
Belgium against Germany, August 4, 1914.
Brazil against Germany, October 26, 1917.
Bulgaria against Serbia, October 14, 1915.
China against Austria, August 14, 1917.
China against Germany, August 14, 1917.
Costa Rica against Germany, May 23, 1918.
Cuba against Germany, April 7, 1917.
Cuba against Austria-Hungary, December 16, 1917.
France against Austria, August 13, 1914.
France against Bulgaria, October 16, 1915.
France against Germany, August 3, 1914.
France against Turkey, November 5, 1914.
Germany against Belgium, August 4, 1914.

Germany against France, August 3, 1914.
Germany against Portugal, March 9, 1916.
Germany against Roumania, September 14, 1916.
Germany against Russia, August 1, 1914.
Great Britain against Austria, August 13, 1914.
Great Britain against Bulgaria, October 15, 1915.
Great Britain against Germany, August 4, 1914.
Great Britain against Turkey, November 5, 1914.
Greece against Bulgaria, November 28, 1916. (Provisional Government).
Greece against Bulgaria, July 2, 1917. (Government of Alexander).
Greece against Germany, November 28, 1916. (Provisional Government).
Greece against Germany, July 2, 1917. (Government of Alexander).
Guatemala against Germany and Austria-Hungaria, April 22, 1918.
Haiti against Germany, July 15, 1918.
Honduras against Germany, July 19, 1918.
Italy against Austria, May 24, 1915.
Italy against Bulgaria, October 19, 1915.
Italy against Germany, August 28, 1916.
Italy against Turkey, August 21, 1915.
Japan against Germany, August 23, 1914.
Liberia against Germany, August 4, 1917.
Montenegro against Germany, August 9, 1914.
Montenegro against Austria, August 8, 1914.
Nicaragua against Germany, May 24, 1918.
Panama against Germany, April 7, 1917.
Panama against Austria, December 10, 1917.
Portugal against Germany, November 23, 1914. (Resolution passed authorizing military intervention as ally of England).
Portugal against Germany, May 19, 1915. (Military aid granted).
Roumania against Austria, August 27, 1916. (Allies of Austria also consider it a declaration.
Russia against Germany, August 7, 1914.
Russia against Bulgaria, October 19, 1915.
Russia against Turkey, November 3, 1914.
San Marino against Austria, May 24, 1915.
Serbia against Bulgaria, October 16, 1915.
Serbia against Germany, August 6, 1914.
Serbia against Turkey, December 2, 1914.
Siam against Austria, July 22, 1917.
Siam against Germany, July 22, 1917.
Turkey against Allies, November 23, 1914.
Turkey against Roumania, August 29, 1916.
United States against Germany, April 6, 1917.
United States against Austria-Hungary, December 7, 1917.

SEVERANCE OF DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS

The nations that formally severed relations whether afterward declaring war or not are as follows:

Austria against Japan, August 26, 1914.
Austria against Portugal, March 16, 1916.
Austria against Serbia, July 26, 1914.
Austria against United States, April 8, 1917.
Bolivia against Germany, April 14, 1917.
Brazil against Germany, April 11, 1917.
China against Germany, March 14, 1917.
Costa Rica against Germany, September 21, 1917.
Ecuador against Germany, December 7, 1917.
Egypt against Germany, August 13, 1914.
France against Austria, August 10, 1914.
Greece against Turkey, July 2, 1917. (Government of Alexander).
Greece against Austria, July 2, 1917. (Government of Alexander).
Guatemala against Germany, April 27, 1917.
Haiti against Germany, June 17, 1917.
Honduras against Germany, May 17, 1917.
Nicaragua against Germany, May 18, 1917.
Peru against Germany, October 16, 1917.
Santo Domingo against Germany, June 8, 1917.
Turkey against United States, April 20, 1917.
United States against Germany, February 3, 1917.
Uruguay against Germany, October 7, 1917.

The task of those who sought to keep America out of the war was difficult from the beginning. Great Britain made a formal declaration that it would follow the laws of naval warfare as laid down by the Declaration of London of 1909, subject to certain modifications and additions, known later as "Orders in Council." These consisted of new lists of absolute and conditional contraband. The British Government also declared its right to capture and hold any vessel which carried contraband of war with false papers if she were encountered on the return voyage. As a consequence of Great Britain's stand, a number of American ships were seized, and some friction resulted. The Government of the United States admitted the right of England to visit and search American ships on the high seas, when there was sufficient evidence that contraband goods might be carried

Painted by Gayle Porter Hoskins—© C. P. Co., 1918.

"THEY SHALL NOT PASS!"—THE SECOND BATTLE OF THE MARNE

Across the pontoon bridges the Germans came, streams of gray-green, writhing under the bombs from allied airplanes, into the arms of the Americans. Everywhere they were hurled back. The bridges blew up under them, the river seized them, the bombs rained upon them. And above the clamor rose the battle cry of the marines.

in the cargo, but it protested against American ships and cargoes being brought into British ports for search.

This dispute upon questions affecting mere property faded into insignificance when Germany's submarine campaign against both lives and shipping was inaugurated by Admiral von Tirpitz. The submarine campaign was an extension of the German policy of *Schrecklichkeit*, or frightfulness. The great heart of America had been stirred to its depths by the atrocities committed upon the Belgian people when the German hordes swept over that country. Murder, rape, arson, mayhem, deliberate destruction of homes, orchards and crops, confiscation of the wealth of communities, all these had been charged and proved notwithstanding Germany's vigorous disclaiming. Now the war of frightfulness was extended to the seas and German submarines like wolves of the waves preyed upon the commerce of the world, sinking ships and destroying lives and property without warning. German cruisers in sudden dashes across the North Sea bombarded the open and defenceless British towns of Yarmouth, Scarborough and Whitby, killing many civilians including many women and children. German Zeppelins dropped bombs upon open towns in England, Belgium and France, killing hundreds of helpless non-combatants.

Finally Germany directed its ruthless sea campaign against America. The American vessel William T. Frye was the first to be sunk deliberately by a German vessel. The Prinz Eitel Friedrich put an armed force aboard the William T. Frye which it overtook in the South Atlantic. The American ship was laden with wheat which was not contraband of war. This was being thrown into the sea when the German commander decided that this process was too slow. Accordingly he removed all members of his own and the Frye's crew to his own ship and sank the American ship with shellfire, on February 28, 1915.

On March 28, 1915, the British ship Falaba bound from Liverpool for the west coast of Africa was torpedoed and sunk. An American citizen, Mr. Leon Thrasher, was drowned. On the 28th of April, 1915, a German airplane dropped three bombs upon the deck of the American ship Cushing. The

American oil tank steamship Gulflight was torpedoed off the Scilly Islands by a German submarine. The captain of the Gulflight and ten of the crew were killed.

American sentiment had been crystallizing against Germany since the mailed fist of Teutonic kultur and the policy of *Schrecklichkeit* had been revealed in Belgium. The policy of ruthless submarine destruction served to prepare America for the inevitable declaration of war against a militarism that knew no bounds of humanity. German ruthlessness was now to add its final argument for American intervention. On April 22d, the German Embassy sent to the newspapers of New York City the following notice:

> NOTICE
>
> Travelers intending to embark on the Atlantic voyage are reminded that a state of war exists between Germany and her allies and Great Britain and her allies; that the zone of war includes the waters adjacent to the British Isles; that, in accordance with formal notice given by the Imperial German Government, vessels flying the flag of Great Britain, or of any of her allies are liable to destruction in those waters and that travelers sailing in the war zone on ships of Great Britain or her allies do so at their own risk.
>
> Imperial German Embassy,
> Washington, D. C., April 22, 1915.

This was printed in the newspapers on the morning of May 1, 1915. On that day, the Lusitania, the crack ship of the Cunard Line sailed from the port of New York carrying 1,251 passengers and a crew of 667. The world was startled and horror-stricken when the cable flashed the news that the Lusitania was sunk May 7th, about eight miles off Old Head of Kinsale on the south coast of Ireland. Two torpedoes struck the great ship without warning. Only ten lifeboats were launched, so rapidly did the great ship sink. The horrible deed dragged to their deaths 1,153 men, women and children of the ship's total of 1,918. Of the 188 Americans who were on board, 114 were lost. Among these were many persons of prominence and usefulness.

While the outside world recoiled in horror, Germany celebrated the sinking of the Lusitania as a naval victory. Medals were struck in honor of the crime and school children were given a holiday. President Wilson was criticised sharply during the later years of his administration because diplomatic relations with Germany were not severed immediately following the destruction of the Lusitania. In his defense it was urged that public sentiment in America had not ripened sufficiently for a declaration of war. Neither had there been sufficient preparation by America for the entrance of the nation into hostilities.

The sinking of the Lusitania was followed shortly by the resignation of Secretary of State Bryan who differed with the President upon questions of state policy. Secretary of War Lindley M. Garrison, of New Jersey, resigned his post. He was a strong advocate of the policy of preparedness for America.

The destruction of the Lusitania was the ferment which transformed the United States from a country of pacifism into a nation resolved upon the extermination of Germany's autocratic militarism. It was a ferment that permeated all classes. American labor and American capital contemplating the Lusitania grew daily to hate more and more the ruthless policy that dictated the frightful deed.

CHAPTER III

America Strikes

GERMANY with her back to the wall, her submarines held within narrow limits, resolved upon a campaign of ruthless submarine warfare. The far-visioned among German statesmen realized that this decision would bring the United States into the war, but Von Tirpitz, head of the German Admiralty and the group associated with him believed that the United States could not be made ready for effective participation in the war before England could be blockaded and subdued.

Ruthless submarine warfare commenced on February 1, 1917. Approximately one hundred U-boats were sent from German and Belgian ports to spread terror and destruction throughout the seas. The British countered with a campaign of intensified destructiveness. From British Admiralty sources came the information that no fewer than forty-eight of these one hundred U-boats had been captured or destroyed by February 25th.

President Wilson on February 3d informed Congress of the change in Germany's submarine policy and on the same day dismissed Count Von Bernstorff, the German Ambassador whose office was the center of German propaganda and destructiveness in the United States. President Wilson on February 26th addressed a joint session of Congress in person. He asked for authority to supply armed crews and ammunition to American merchant vessels and "To employ any other instrumentalities or methods that may be necessary and adequate to protect our ships and our people in their legitimate pursuits on the seas."

News was received of the destruction, by a submarine, of the Cunard liner Laconia with loss of American lives and property, on the next day. This was followed on March 12th by the sinking with shellfire and bombs of the American ship

Algonquin, bound from New York to London with food. The attack was made without warning at 6 o'clock in the morning. A crew of twenty-six men, fourteen of whom were Americans, were in open boats for twenty-seven hours, before they reached Scilly. Germany gloried in the result of its ruthless policy. On March 19th, the following official announcement was issued from Berlin:

> In February 368 merchant ships of an aggregate gross tonnage of 781,500 were lost by the war measures of the Central Powers. Among them were 292 hostile ships, with an aggregate gross tonnage of 644,000 and seventy-six neutral ships of an aggregate gross tonnage of 137,500. Among the neutral ships sixty-one were sunk by submarines, which is 16.5 per cent of the total in February, as compared with 29 per cent, the average of neutral losses in the last four months.

Coupled with the nation-wide indignation created by the sinking of American shipping without warning on the high seas, was the anger caused by the publication on March 1, 1917, of a letter dated January 19, 1917, signed by the German Foreign Secretary Zimmermann, and addressed to the German Minister Von Eckhardt in Mexico City. It revealed an anti-American alliance proposed by Germany with Mexico and Japan in the event that war was declared. The letter follows:

> Berlin, Jan. 19, 1917.
>
> On February 1st we intend to begin submarine warfare unrestricted. In spite of this it is our intention to endeavor to keep neutral the United States of America.
>
> If this attempt is not successful, we propose an alliance on the following basis with Mexico: That we shall make war together and together make peace. We shall give general financial support, and it is understood that Mexico is to reconquer the lost territory of New Mexico, Texas and Arizona. The details are left to you for settlement.
>
> You are instructed to inform the President of Mexico of the above in the greatest confidence as soon as it is certain that there will be an outbreak of war with the United States, and suggest that the President of Mexico on his own initiative should communicate with Japan suggesting adherence at once to this plan. At the same time, offer to mediate between Germany and Japan.
>
> Please call to the attention of the President of Mexico that the employment of ruthless submarine warfare now promises to compel England to make peace in a few months.
>
> ZIMMERMANN.

The purpose of the people of the United States was now set definitely for war with Germany. It was a current as impetuous as the rapids of Niagara. Nothing could halt it. Everything that stood in the way was swept aside. Meetings of pacifists, conferences looking toward further negotiations with Germany were impatiently swept aside. On March 6th Secretary of the Navy Josephus Daniels called the leading shipbuilders of the United States together and placed before them the proposition of the United States Government for immediate increase in the navy. As a result of that conference, Secretary Daniels on March 15th placed the largest single order that was ever given for fighting seacraft. Four huge battle cruisers and six scout cruisers costing $112,000,000 for hull and machinery alone were planned.

A three-year navy building program was outlined for seven battleships, five battle cruisers, seven scout cruisers, and a host of destroyers, submarines, dirigible airships and other craft.

The record of Germany's offenses against the United States was set forth formally by the Committee on Foreign Affairs of the House of Representatives. It was a long one and included a series of intrigues against the peace of the United States, engineered by Germany's official representatives and spies in this country; fraudulent passports; supplying German warships with coal and provisions; the attempt to blow up the International Bridge at Vanceboro, Me.; placing bombs on ships; attempts to bring about strikes; conspiracy to send agents into Canada to blow up railroad tunnels and bridges; an elaborate system of espionage carried on by Paul Koenig, head of the secret-service work of the Hamburg-American Line; organizing an expedition to destroy the Welland Canal; attempts to organize an expedition to go to India to bring about a revolution there; financing a number of newspapers for the purposes of German propaganda; and encouraging and aiding activities of one or other faction in Mexico, the purpose being to keep the United States occupied along its own borders and prevent the exportation of munitions of war. Involved in these plottings were the official representatives of the Imperial German Government in this country, Count Von Bernstorff, the German Ambassador; Captain Von Papen, Military Attaché of the embassy; Captain Boy-Ed, Naval Attaché; Dr. Dumba, the Austro-Hungarian Ambassador; Dr. Heinrich Albert, Wolf von Igel, Franz von Rintelen and many others.

All these plottings occurred while Germany was professing friendship with the United States; and, taken in conjunction with the destruction of Americans on the high seas, they vanquished the feeling of neutrality which this country had endeavored to maintain, and made war inevitable.

It only now remained for the President to call the nation to arms. This he did in a memorable address delivered on the night of April 2, 1917. The President realized his heavy responsibility and his face was pale and his voice low and repressed as he commenced to read his address to the joint session of Congress and the most notable gathering of Americans and allies this country had ever seen. At first he leaned against the marble rostrum, but as the recital of the indignities suffered at the hands of Germany proceeded the words came vibrant with feeling. At the conclusion of the reading a demonstration unparalleled in its emotional sweep arose. It was the release of America's determination to join the Entente Allies for the extinction of a military autocracy that was threatening the future of the world's civilization.

Among other things, the President said:

> . . . With a profound sense of the solemn and even tragical character of the step I am taking and of the grave responsibilities which it involves, but in unhesitating obedience to what I deem my constitutional duty, I advise that the Congress declare the recent course of the Imperial German Goverment to be in fact nothing less than war against the government and people of the United States; that it formally accept the status of belligerent which has thus been thrust upon it; and that it take immediate steps not only to put the country in a more thorough state of defense, but also to exert all its power and employ all its resources to bring the government of the German Empire to terms and end the war. . . .
>
> It is a fearful thing to lead this great, peaceful people into war, into the most terrible and disastrous of all wars, civilization itself seeming to be in the balance. But the right is more precious than peace, and we shall fight for the things which we have always carried nearest our hearts—for democracy, for the right of those who submit to authority to have a voice in their own governments, for the rights and liberties of small nations,

for a universal domain of right by such a concert of free peoples as shall bring peace and safety to all nations and make the world itself at last free.

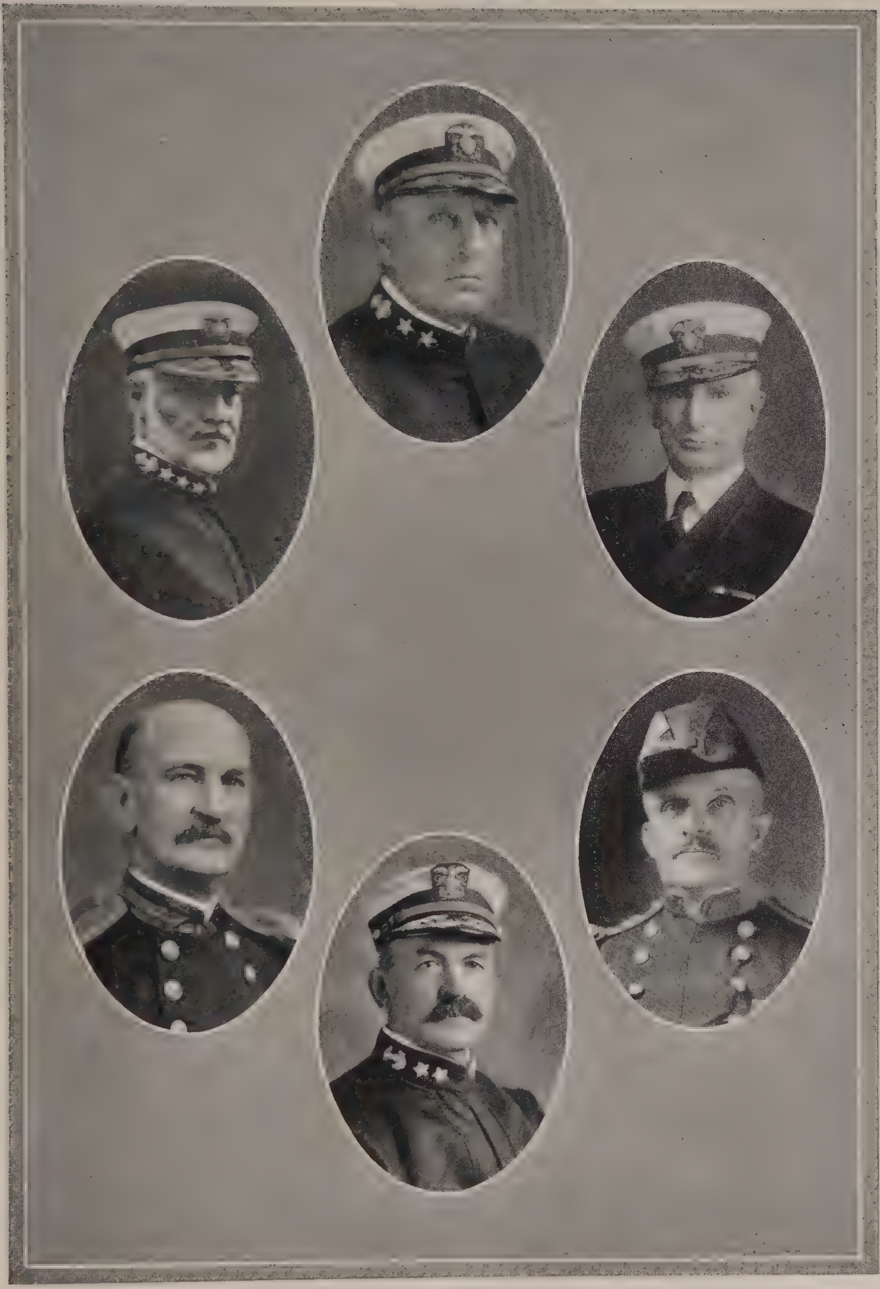
America's formal declaration of war against Germany was made by Congress on April 6th. The formal declaration of war by the United States against Austria-Hungary was not made until December 11th, but for all practical purposes, America was at war with all the Teutonic Allies from April 6, 1917.

Thus was America brought into the war. No selfish motive actuated her. It was to her selfish interest to remain neutral. She might have coined from the necessities of the Allies wealth beyond all precedent in the history of nations. The unquestioned leadership of the world in material things lay ahead in the path of neutrality. In the path of war lay sacrifices both of blood and treasure. Heavy international obligations must be assumed by her the moment she became a belligerent. The selfish easy policy of national isolation became forever impossible once she entered the World War.

She had nothing to gain by belligerency, that is, nothing in a material sense. Not an acre of land, not a dollar of profit would come to her. Instead she was certain to give up thousands of the lives of young Americans and to lose billions of dollars. Her only reward was to be an extension of the principle of true democracy throughout the world. The nation that had been derided in Europe as "the dollar country" was to set an example of idealism to serve as a beacon throughout future centuries.

America really entered the war to destroy a German theory of government, a theory that a militarist group could take from the lives of its young men their best years and in these years train these men in the art of murder: that these men so trained operating under scientists specializing in the arts of human destruction could dominate the world and place the world under a system of heavy toll.

America's entrance into the war demonstrated to the world that free peoples could leave the plow and the mill and the shop and within a few months by stoic training and sacrifice so steel themselves in the arts of war that materialistic militarism would be overwhelmed and destroyed.



ADMIRALS OF THE AMERICAN NAVY

Upper row, left to right: Vice-Admiral Wm. S. Sims; Rear-Admiral Hugh Rodman; Vice-Admiral Henry B. Wilson; *lower:* Rear-Admiral Henry T. Mayo; Rear-Admiral Frank F. Fletcher; Rear-Admiral Albert Gleaves.

U. S. Official Photograph.

MAKING IT HOT FOR BOCHE AVIATORS

American officers on second line of defense firing a machine gun on an anti-aircraft mount at German airplanes.

U. S. Official Photograph.

ATTACKING WITH LEWIS GUNS

These light machine guns are well adapted for infantry work, and great numbers were used in service.

How American manhood, womanhood and childhood mobilized in a mighty effort that ended the greatest war the world ever knew is a story of imperishable glory. An army that for dauntless resolution and clear-eyed initiative and resourcefulness was never equalled broke the back of German militarism at Château-Thierry, St. Mihiel, and in the dark, blood-soaked spaces of the Argonne forest. An American Navy, ready to spring like an unleashed tiger if the German Navy had ventured from behind its protecting mine fields, co-operated with the British Navy in the blockade of the German coast and the destruction of the German submarine menace. Back of the army and the navy stood in serried ranks American labor, American farmers, American civilians in an overpowering array of industrial, agricultural and civilian effort.

It was a mobilization such as no country had ever known against which the phalanx of autocracy could not compete.

American effort ended the war. That is the judgment of history, a record that will inspire future generations of Americans and the peoples of other lands to future efforts for liberty's sake.

A potent factor in arousing the country to the need for military preparedness appeared in the person of General Leonard Wood. Courageously, insistently, at all times and in all places he predicted that America would become involved in the World War and demanded that instant preparation be made.

When the United States entered the conflict General Wood was assigned to Camp Funston where he prepared two divisions for battle. He was not given the opportunity to lead his men into action but, as a good soldier, he swallowed his disappointment and continued to train civilians for war.

CHAPTER IV

Conscription of a Peaceful Nation

HOW the flower of America's youth, answering the call to battle, sprang to the support of the colors; how America's army of democracy was raised almost overnight, trained in an incredibly short period of time and made ready for the front line trenches in the battle for civilization, is a story that will go down through the ages as a monument for all time to the patriotism of America's young manhood.

Shortly after the declaration of war, the War Department announced that Major-General John J. Pershing would command approximately one division of regular troops which had been ordered to proceed to France as soon as possible, and that Pershing would accompany his staff before the troops left. President Wilson declined to accept the offer of the late Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, hero of San Juan Hill, and later President of the United States, to raise and equip a volunteer division, somewhat on the plan of the "Rough Riders" of Spanish-American War fame. Thus, at the time of the declaration of war with Germany, America had only one division to throw immediately into the balance on the side of the Allies.

It was announced that a divisional unit of the army as reorganized on the plan used by the Allies, would consist of 25,718 men and officers. Wagon trains and motor trains would raise this number to 28,334. To this would be added the medical contingent consisting of 125 officers, 1,332 enlisted men and forty-eight ambulances.

The mobilization of the national guard had been ordered in all the states of the Union. The Vermont, Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, Connecticut and District of Columbia National Guard divisions had been called out for police duty in March.

They were stationed near railway bridges and water works as guards against German plotters. Before the end of March, twenty regiments and five battalions of the national guards in eighteen more states were called. Twenty-two thousand guardsmen who were then returning from service on the Mexican border were not mustered out, but held in the service, and seven additional regiments were called out. On April 1st, out of a total of 150,000 national guardsmen, 60,000 were under arms.

On April 6th came the order for the mobilization of the navy. This branch of the service was found to be 35,000 men short of the 87,000 men authorized by law. It was necessary to recruit 99,809 men as regulars, and 45,870 men as reserves to put the navy on a war basis. Of these, 73,817 regulars and 25,219 reserves were to be used on battleships, scouts, destroyers, submarines and training ships of the navy; 10,318 regulars and 2,080 reserves were to be used for shore stations, and 10,633 regulars and 17,195 reserves were to be used for coast defense.

Enlistments were opened almost immediately. Every possible means to attract a recruit to the service was used. Women pleaded with noon-hour crowds at recruiting meetings, and the entire country was plastered with posters urging men to enlist. Volunteer recruiting was not a success in the United States. It was as flat a failure in this country as it had been in England. We later profited by England's example and drafted men into the army, but it was not until we had experienced some of the same symptoms which had marked England's entry into the war and a few subsequent months thereafter.

Far from satisfactory were the recruits obtained by volunteer enlistment. Many gave fictitious names or addresses when they enlisted. Others failed to report to the stations to which they had been assigned. Thousands of volunteers failed to pass the physical examinations. Flat feet, bad hearing, bad teeth, defective sight and other physical defects barred many from the service. However, the daily enlistments for the navy rose from twenty-five to a thousand a day while the army, at the peak of its recruiting campaign, obtained nearly fifteen hundred recruits a day. By July 31st, more than a million men had volunteered, and of these, 558,858 had been accepted for service. Of this great number of recruits, the regular army received 163,633 men; the navy, 69,000 men, the officers' training camps 35,000 men and the national guard received 145,000.

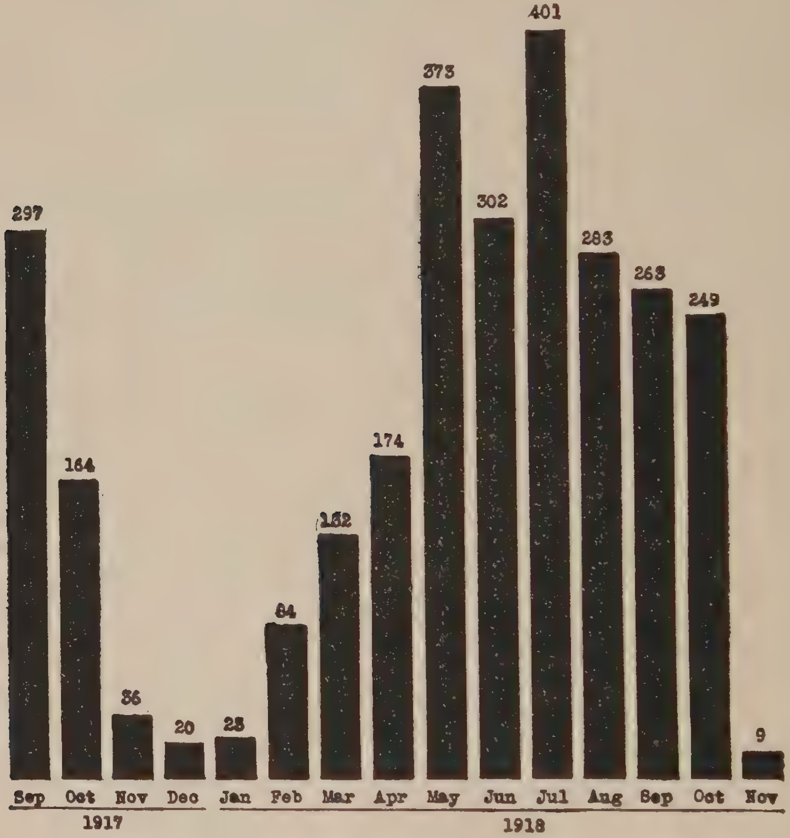


Chart Showing, in Thousands. the Number of Men Drafted Each Month into the National Army

This chart and the other charts in this book are reproduced from the "Statistical Summary" prepared by Col. Leonard P. Ayres, Chief of the Statistics Branch, General Staff.

On May 18th, after a month of wrangling, Congress passed the Selective Service Law, which called for the registration of all males in the United States between the ages of twenty-one and thirty years, inclusive. The measure provided for the increasing of the regular army to 287,000 men and the national guard to 625,000 men. It further adopted for the United States the theory and system of compulsory military service, providing a system of selective drafts of men between the ages mentioned. The President was authorized to take half a million men at once and another half million later, in addition to the regular army and national guard increases. In all, the legislation provided an army of approximately 2,000,000 to be raised in the first year following the passage of the law. The vote in the Senate was 81 to 8, and the vote in the House of Representatives was 397 to 24.

President Wilson signed the bill the day it was passed, and at once issued the proclamation calling the young men of the country to the colors. June 5th was fixed as the day for registration. The day was to be made the occasion of a great patriotic demonstration throughout the country. In his proclamation, the President said:

"The power against which we are arrayed has sought to impose its will upon the world by force. To this end it has increased armament until it has changed the face of war. In the sense in which we have been wont to think of armies, there are no armies in this struggle, there are entire nations armed. Thus, the men who remain to till the soil and man the factories are no less a part of the army that is in France than the men beneath the battle flags. It must be so with us. It is not an army that we must shape and train for war; it is a nation.

"To this end, our people must draw close in one compact front against a common foe. But this cannot be if each man pursues a private purpose. The nation needs all men; but it needs each man not in the field that will most pleasure him, but in that endeavor that will best serve the common good. Thus, though a sharpshooter pleases to operate a trip-hammer for the forging of great guns and an expert machinist desires to march with the flag, the nation is being served only when the sharpshooter marches and the machinist remains at his levers.

"The whole nation must be a team, in which each man shall play the part for which he is best fitted.

"The significance of this cannot be overstated. It is a new thing in our history and a landmark in our progress. It is a new manner of accepting and vitalizing our duty to give ourselves with thoughtful devotion to the common purpose of us all. It is in no sense a conscription of the unwilling; it is rather selection from a nation which has volunteered in mass. It is no more a choosing of those who shall march with the colors than it is a selection of those who shall serve an equally necessary and devoted purpose in the industries that lie behind the battle line."

According to the provisions of the Selective Service Act as passed, the Vice-President of the United States, the officers, legislative, executive and judicial, of the United States, and of the several states, territories and District of Columbia; regular or duly ordained ministers of religion; students in recognized schools of divinity and theology; all persons in the military or naval service of the United States; members of sects whose creeds forbade them to engage in war; county and municipal officials; custom house clerks, those engaged in the transmission of the mails; artisans and workmen in armories, arsenals, navy yards; pilots and mariners actually in sea service; those employed in industries and in agriculture necessary to the operations of the armed forces; those physically or mentally deficient, and those upon whom someone depended for support, all these were or might be exempt.

REGISTRATION DAY

June 5th drew near. As the day approached on which all America's young manhood was expected to register itself as ready for the summons to action, anti-draft and anti-war demonstrations were made by socialists and other malcontents, who marched about the streets of the larger cities distributing pamphlets and bearing banners inscribed with various legends protesting the draft and the war. These were dealt with summarily by groups of soldiers and sailors, who quickly tore down the red banner of one socialistic mob in Boston, and forced their band to play the "Star Spangled Banner."

The day came. The census bureau in an estimate gave ten million as the probable number of registrants. Never, in all the history of the country, did the young men of America show such patriotism, such love of country, such zeal and such true American spirit as on that day, the day which will stand out in letters of gold in the history of America's part in the fight for the freedom of the world, as the day on which America sprang to arms. Young men, from every walk of life, accompanied by grandfathers wearing the uniform of the Grand Army of the Republic, streamed into registration places in all parts of the country, and filled out the registration blank. The men who registered for service, offering their all, if they should be needed, showed their noble spirit in many ways. Thousands left the question "Do you claim exemption from draft?" unanswered, preferring to leave it for the government to decide the matter of exemption. Diplomatic and consular representatives of foreign governments made requests during the day for additional registration cards to be used for the registration of American citizens of the required ages abroad.

The polling booths and other places employed for election purposes were utilized as the places of registration. The registration blank contained twelve questions covering among others, name, age, address, nationality, birthplace, occupation and concluded with the question: "Do you claim exemption from draft (specify grounds)?" The day passed quietly. Although some trouble was expected from anti-conscriptionists, there was practically no disorder. A few arrests were reported, but the method employed by the young men who were opposed to conscription was in nearly every case, simply to neglect to register.

A statement officially issued by the Committee on Public Information on the evening of July 5th, said in part:

> Nearly 10,000,000 Americans of military age registered today for service in the army against Germany. The registration was accomplished in a fashion measuring up to the highest standards of Americanism. The young men came to the registration places enthusiastic; there was no hint of a slacking spirit anywhere except in a few cases where misguided persons had been prevailed upon to attempt to avoid their national obligation.
>
> From every state reports were received showing that the sporadic

conspiracies to thwart the first step toward the mobilization of as large an army as the country may need to bring the war to a victorious conclusion had failed utterly. The Department of Justice had a tremendous machinery ready to cope with these conspiracies, but it proved to be unnecessary. Arrangements had been made by the Department of Justice and the War Department to secure immediate telegraphic reports upon any outbreaks or troublesome occurrences.

The spirit of the young men from whom the fighting forces are to be selected was evidenced in their attitude toward question twelve on the registration blanks, which asked if exemption was claimed. In thousands of cases young men availed themselves of the right to ignore this question and to leave it entirely for the government to decide whether they should be selected. This spirit was evidenced again in the receipt during the day of numerous requests from diplomatic and consular officials of the United States for additional registration cards to be used by citizens who are now in other countries; this fact was impressive because registration is voluntary on the part of Americans resident abroad.

On the first registration day for selective service this country had ever known, 9,659,382 young men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty inclusive, reported. Of these, 7,347,794 were white citizens, 953,899 were colored citizens, 1,239,865 were unnaturalized foreigners from countries other than Germany, 111,823 were unnaturalized Germans, including "declarants," persons having declared their intention to become citizens but not having received their final citizenship papers, and 6,001 were Indians.

The total registration results showed a discrepancy of 4.1 of the estimate of 10,079,000 made by the census bureau. The apparent shortage, about 413,000 was considerably less than the number of men of the draft age who were estimated by the War Department to have been in the various branches of the military and naval services of the United States on June 5th, and for that reason exempt from the requirement of registration. This number is 600,000. On the face of these figures, the number of men in the United States between the ages of twenty-one and thirty, inclusive, was slightly in excess of the census bureau estimates.

REGISTRATION BY STATES

The registration by states, showing the total registration, the percentage of the census bureau estimate for the various states and the number of registered unnaturalized Germans follows:

	Total registration.	Per cent of estimate.	Unnaturalized Germans.
United States	9,659,382	95.9	111,823
Alabama	179,828	85.7	89
Arizona	36,932	106.4	193
Arkansas	147,522	94.2	98
California	297,532	82.2	3,948
Colorado	83,038	75.8	372
Connecticut	159,761	129.3	1,126
Delaware	21,864	108.8	92
District of Columbia	32,327	87.1	79
Florida	84,683	88.9	208
Georgia	231,418	90.6	120
Idaho	41,150	79.4	181
Illinois	672,498	105.2	6,051
Indiana	255,145	100.6	1,149
Iowa	216,594	108.8	1,862
Kansas	150,029	85.3	736
Kentucky	187,573	92.8	....
Louisiana	157,827	92.3	216
Maine	60,176	95.5	120
Maryland	120,458	99.1	912
Massachusetts	359,323	101.1	1,508
Michigan	372,872	129.4	3,021
Minnesota	221,715	90.6	1,971
Mississippi	139,525	79.7	45
Missouri	299,625	94.9	1,008
Montana	88,273	120.4	687
Nebraska	118,123	91.3	1,156
Nevada	11,821	71.6	87
New Hampshire	37,642	102.3	79
New Jersey	302,742	100.8	4,956
New Mexico	32,202	77.6	108
New York	1,054,302	99.4	30,870
North Carolina	200,032	102.9	73
North Dakota	65,007	73.0	615
Ohio	565,384	114.4	6,189
Oklahoma	169,211	79.3	219
Oregon	62,618	57.9	577
Pennsylvania	830,507	95.0	12,674
Rhode Island	53,415	88.7	126
South Carolina	128,039	93.4	28
South Dakota	58,014	72.1	484
Tennessee	187,611	96.2	85
Texas	408,702	97.3	1,834
Utah	41,952	90.8	344
Vermont	27,658	94.1	72
Virginia	181,826	97.5	179
Washington	108,330	49.8	791
West Virginia	127,409	90.0	1,003
Wisconsin	240,170	104.6	23,121
Wyoming	22,848	64.5	329
National Parks	85	....	2
Indians	6,011	.	....

The next step in the establishment of the army of democracy was the establishment of local boards. It was provided in the selective service regulations that for each county of 45,000 population, and for each city of 30,000 there should be a local exemption board, with an additional board for each 30,000 population. These boards were to consist of three persons appointed by the President, one member to be a physician. These local boards, on being organized, took over all registration cards, numbered them serially without regard to alphabetical order, transmitted copies to the state adjutant-general, and prepared lists for Provost Marshal General Enoch H. Crowder, at Washington, who had charge of the national administration of the selective service regulations.

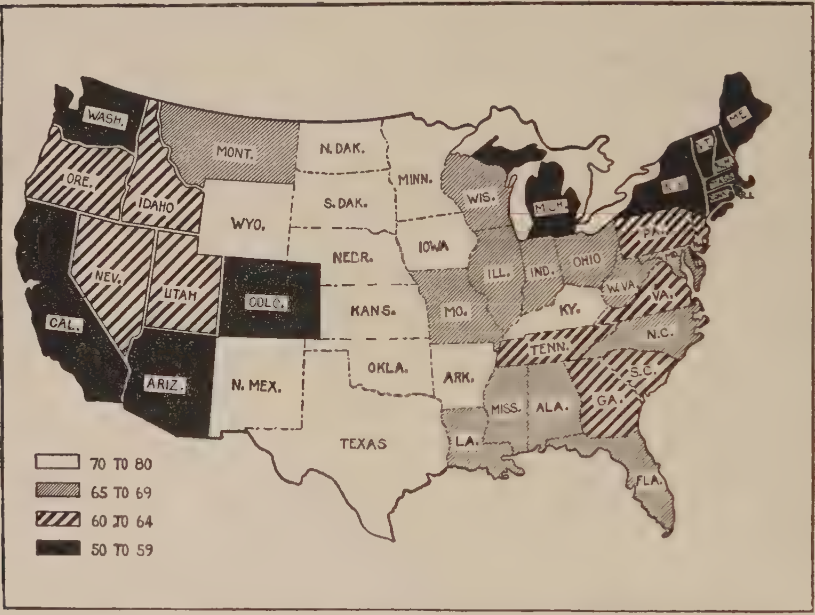
The President then fixed the net quotas for the states, and the state organizations fixed the quotas of the various districts. The quotas for the first draft were fixed as follows:

	Net Quota.
United States	687,000
Alabama	13,612
Arizona	3,472
Arkansas	10,267
California	23,060
Colorado	4,753
Connecticut	10,977
Delaware	1,202
District of Columbia	929
Florida	6,325
Georgia	18,337
Idaho	2,287
Illinois	51,653
Indiana	17,510
Iowa	12,749
Kansas	6,439
Kentucky	14,236
Louisiana	13,582
Maine	1,821
Maryland	7,096
Massachusetts	20,586
Michigan	30,291
Minnesota	17,854

	Net Quota.
Mississippi	10,801
Missouri	18,660
Montana	7,872
Nebraska	8,185
Nevada	1,051
New Hampshire	1,204
New Jersey	20,665
New Mexico	2,292
New York	69,241
North Carolina	15,974
North Dakota	5,606
Ohio	38,773
Oklahoma	15,564
Oregon	717
Pennsylvania	60,859
Rhode Island	1,801
South Carolina	10,081
South Dakota	2,717
Tennessee	14,528
Texas	30,545
Utah	2,730
Vermont	1,049
Virginia	13,795
Washington	7,296
West Virginia	9,101
Wisconsin	12,876
Wyoming	810
Alaska	696
Hawaii	000
Porto Rico	12,833

It was announced that the drawing of the 625,000 men to form the first army under the Selective Service Act would take place on July 15th in Washington. The serial numbers for each of the five thousand districts in the country were placed in a jury wheel, and would be drawn one at a time until the requisite number was attained. Each number drawn would apply to each registration district whose numbers reached the number drawn, so that nearly five thousand men would be drafted at one time. Thus, if the number "500" were drawn, the man in every district throughout the country holding that number would be selected for service and required to appear before the local board for physical examination, or for the hearing of his claim to exemption if he had one to present.

The serial numbers on the registration cards were discarded, and in their places other numbers, known as "red ink" numbers, because they were marked in red ink, were assigned the registrants. These "red ink" numbers, numbering 10,500, were placed each in a black celluloid capsule in a glass bowl. They were well mixed, and on Friday, July 20th, the drawing began. Newton D. Baker, Secretary of War, blindfolded, drew the first capsule. It was handed to the announcer who opened it. His shaky hand trembled for a moment, and nervously he drew out the little slip of paper from the capsule and called out with a quiver in his voice, "Number 258." At that moment, one man in every one of the 4,557 districts throughout the United States, if as many as 258 had been registered in each district, was called to the standard to fight for democracy against military autocracy.



Per Cent of Drafted Men Passing Physical Examination, by States

The number announced was noted by three tally clerks, who wrote it on a huge blackboard in open sight of everyone in the chamber. It was then telegraphed to every town, village and hamlet from Maine to Washington, and from the

Great Lakes to the Gulf. The second number was drawn by the Chairman of the Senate Committee on Military Affairs, the third by the Chairman of the House Committee on Military Affairs, and the fourth and fifth by the ranking minority members of the two committees. Motion picture machines clicked the celluloid record of the historic drawing for preservation among the archives of the country, at the request of the Secretary of War.

In the cities, towns and villages throughout the entire country, business was virtually suspended for the day. All day long, and far into the night, crowds of young men, anxious to know whether they were in the chosen ranks of democracy's knighthood, lawyers, laborers, machinists, drug-clerks, artisans and authors, rich and poor, thronged the sidewalks in front of every bulletin board whereon the numbers were displayed in order. The drawing of the capsules continued for sixteen and a half hours, until the ten thousand five hundred pellets had been taken from the bowl, and 1,374,000 men had been called to form the vanguard of the dauntless American Army.

CHAPTER V

TRANSFORMING CITIZENS INTO SOLDIERS

THE bugle sounded. "To arms!" Clerks and lawyers, machinists and musicians, engineers and laborers, all America's manhood, overflowing with the ideals of democracy, flocked to the colors.

The overall, the jumper, the silken socks, the alpaca office coat—all were laid aside, and khaki clothed them every one. Overnight, it seemed, training camps sprang up, wooden cities housing thousands, growing out of the earth like mushrooms after a rain. Training fields, drill grounds—levelled, laid out and perfected in less time than was ever hoped for by the War Department. The American Army, particularly the National Army, literally "ate up" its training. The French trembled. "We are holding the enemy—but for how long?" was the word from Foch. "We are fighting with our backs to the wall," said Field Marshal Haig, at the moment when the Allies' darkest hour had arrived. "Hold the line—We're coming, and we're aching for a fight," was the word from America.

It took some time to wake America up, it is true, but once awakened—there was no let up until the armistice was signed in the special train of Marshal Foch in the little forest near the town of Senlis. As soon as the call was sounded, it was unthinkable that there should be any cessation of the tremendous war activities here, and there was none.

With no hatred in their hearts for the German people, but with a determination to crush the Thing that dominated them and threatened to dominate the world, the Americans set themselves the task of winning the war—and what the American dares, he can do.

Under the terms of the Selective Service Act with its subsequent modifications, approximately 23,709,000 males between the ages of eighteen and forty-five inclusive registered for service in the National Army. The dates of registration, with the age groups of the registrants and the number of men who registered, follow:

Date of Registration.	Age Group of Registrants.	Number of Registrants.
June 5, 1917	21–30	9,587,000
June 5, 1918	21–30	736,000
August 24, 1918	21–30	158,000
Total	21–30	10,481,000
September 12, 1918	18–45	13,228,000
Grand total	18–45	23,709,000

After the order in which the registrants would be called for physical examination had been determined by the drawing at Washington, the local boards began to issue notices for the drafted men to appear for examination. In some parts of the country, notably in Oklahoma, groups organized to resist the draft. To these and to all others in all parts of the country who might resist the draft, Provost Marshal General Crowder issued a statement in which he said there was nothing to resist thus far. The call to appear before the examining boards, General Crowder said, was to afford all who were eligible for exemption an opportunity to present their claims. The Provost Marshal General emphasized the fact that failure to report for duty when ordered was desertion—in time of war a capital offense.

Early in September, the mobilization of the young men drawn for service in the National Army began. On September 5th, five per cent of the white men enrolled in the first quota of the National Guard left for the training camps established in all parts of the country. On September 19th and October 3d, detachments of forty per cent each left for the camps, and the remaining fifteen per cent were sent out speedily thereafter.

The days on which the men left were made national holidays. Workers left their machines, farmers their plows and wives and mothers their housework to furnish a fitting sendoff for the defenders of democracy. Cheerfully they went, with songs on their lips. On September 3d, came the farewell message from the President:

"You are undertaking a great duty. The heart of the whole country is with you. Everything that you do will be watched with the deepest interest and with the deepest solicitude not only by those who are near and dear to you, but by the whole nation besides.

"For this great war draws us all together, makes us all comrades and brothers as all true Americans felt themselves to be when we first made good our national independence.

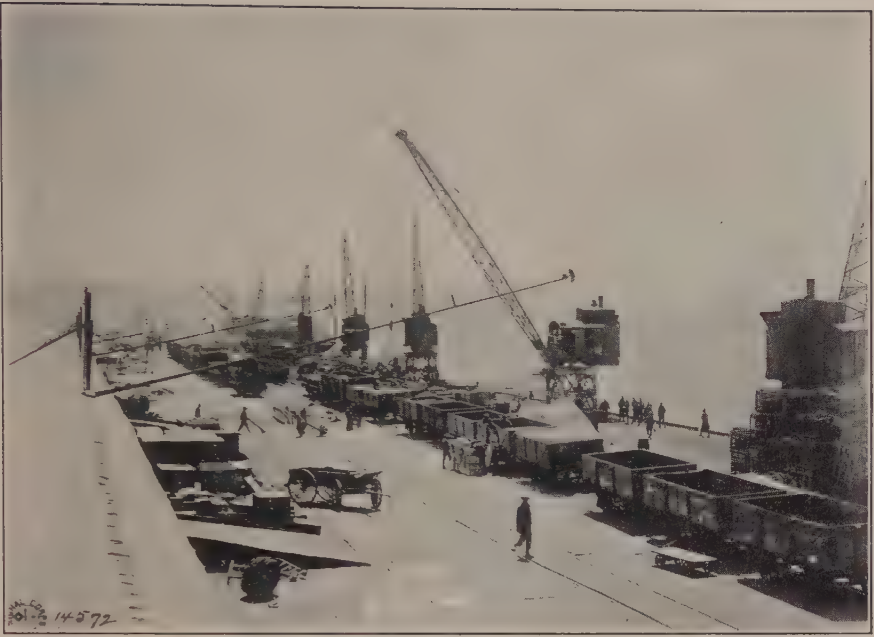
"The eyes of the whole world will be upon you, because you are in some special sense the soldiers of freedom. Let it be your pride, therefore, to show all good men, everywhere, not only what good soldiers you are, but also what good men you are, keeping yourselves fit and straight in everything and pure and clean through and through.

"Let us set for ourselves a standard so high that it will be a glory to live up to it, and then let us live up to it and add a new laurel to the crown of America.

"My affectionate confidence goes with you in every battle and every test. God keep and guide you."

The willingness with which the universal draft was accepted by the American people is one of the most remarkable features in the history of our participation in the World War. That a nation founded on the principles which are the very antithesis of compulsory military service should take so readily to this means of raising men was almost inconceivable. The Germans scoffed. They little thought that the marvel which was to happen overnight was to come to pass at all. But it did; and the flower of the youth of America, concentrated in the 77th, the 79th, the 93d and other drafted divisions of the National Army swept all that Germany could put in the field before them—cleared the terrain for miles in northern France, and after forty-seven days of raging hell sent back word to the States: "The Huns are gone from the Argonne."

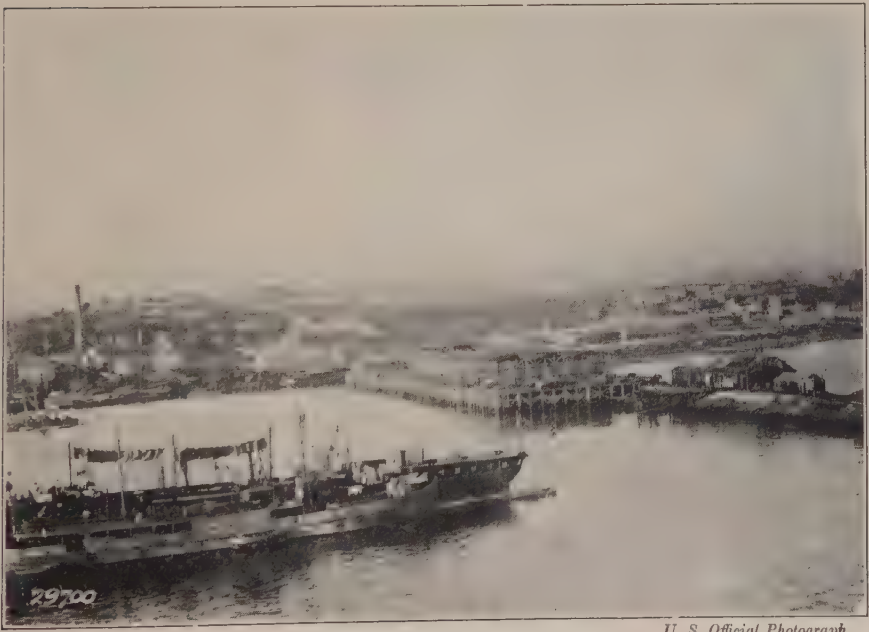
It is a noteworthy evidence of the enthusiastic support given by the country to the war program that, despite previous hostility to the principle of universal liability for military service, a few months after the Selective Service Law was passed the standing of the drafted soldier was fully as honor-



U. S. Official Photograph.

THE DOCKS AT BREST

The army engineers quickly converted this quiet French port into a hive of industry with great concrete docks, warehouses and hundreds of miles of railroad tracks.



U. S. Official Photograph.

THE HARBOR OF BREST

In this port, the only deep water harbor available, were landed the great majority of the American Expeditionary Forces.

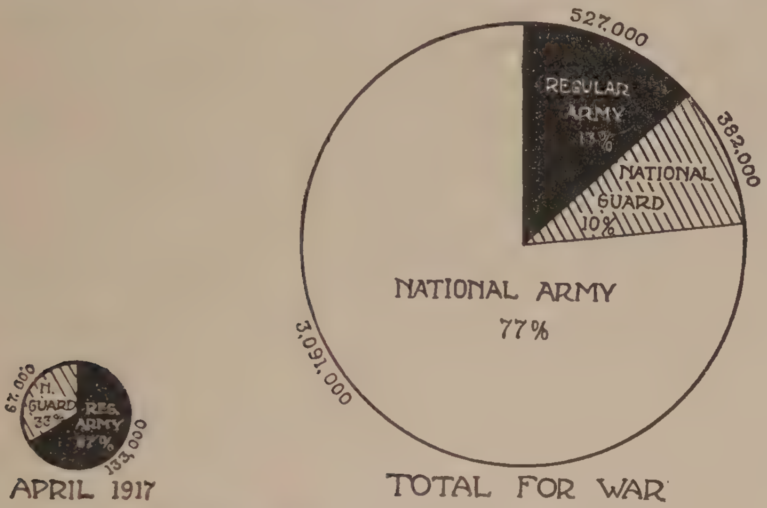
U. S. Official Photograph.

DRAWING THE DRAFT NUMBERS

Secretary of War Baker opening a capsule containing one of the fated draft numbers.

able in the estimation of his companions and of the country in general as was that of the man who enlisted voluntarily. At the outset, the drafted man was not thought so much of as was the enlisted man. But time and the fact that all were one in the cause for which they fought, tempered this feeling until the American soldier, draftee or National Guardsman or Regular, was the idol of the country.

Moreover, the record of desertions from the army shows that the total was smaller than in previous wars. A smaller percentage occurred among drafted men than among those who volunteered. Under the Selective Service Act, a total of 24,234,021 men were registered, and slightly more than 2,800,000 were inducted into the military service. All this was accomplished in a manner that was fair to the men, supplied the army with soldiers as rapidly as they could be equipped and trained, and resulted in a minimum of disturbance to the industrial and economic life of the nation. Our men were left in the posts where they were of most value to the country and the service. Of the total number registered, only twelve per cent were inducted into the service. In the course of the war, twenty-four million out of a total male population of fifty-four million registered for service.



The Three Sources from Which the Army Came

The story of the cantonments and how they sprang up overnight is a story of American efficiency that is rivalled only by the story of the training of the American doughboys. For each of the sixteen divisional areas in the United States based on the population, there was built a great wooden city, where the National Army was quartered until its course of training was finished. The camps and their locations were as follows:

Camp Devens, Ayer, Mass.
Camp Upton, Yaphank, Long Island, N. Y.
Camp Dix, Wrightstown, N. J.
Camp Meade, Annapolis Junction, Md.
Camp Lee, Petersburg, Va.
Camp Jackson, Columbia, S. C.
Camp Gordon, Atlanta, Ga.
Camp Sherman, Chillicothe, Ohio.
Camp Taylor, Louisville, Ky.
Camp Custer, Battle Creek, Mich.
Camp Grant, Rockford, Ill.
Camp Pike, Little Rock, Ark.
Camp Dodge, Des Moines, Iowa.
Camp Funston, Fort Riley, Kans.
Camp Travis, Fort Sam Houston, Texas.
Camp Lewis, American Lake, Wash.

The National Guard Camps were as follows:

Camp Greene, Charlotte, N. C.
Camp Wadsworth, Spartanburg, S. C.
Camp Hancock, Augusta, Ga.
Camp McClellan, Anniston, Ala.
Camp Sevier, Greenville, S. C.
Camp Wheeler, Macon, Ga.
Camp MacArthur, Waco, Texas.
Camp Logan, Houston, Texas.
Camp Cody, Deming, N. Mex.
Camp Doniphan, Fort Sill, Okla.
Camp Bowie, Fort Worth, Texas.
Camp Sheridan, Montgomery, Ala.
Camp Shelby, Hattiesburg, Miss.
Camp Beauregard, Alexandria, La.
Camp Kearny, Linda Vista, Cal.
Camp Fremont, Palo Alto, Cal.

Among the special embarkation cantonments were:

Camp Merritt, Dumont, N. J.

Camp Mills, Mineola, Long Island, N. Y.
Camp Stuart, Newport News, Va.
Camp Hill, Newport News, Va.

Other special camps and cantonments included:

Camp Forrest, Fort Oglethorpe, Ga.
Camp Humphreys, Accotink, Va.
Camp Abraham Eustis, Lee Hall, Va.
Camp Knox, Stithton, Ky.
Camp Johnston, Jacksonville, Fla.
Camp Greenleaf, Fort Oglethorpe, Ga.

Within three months from the time ground was broken, the men were drilling on the parade grounds of the camps. The gigantic nature of the task of building the cantonments becomes clearer when one realizes that each cantonment required 25,000,000 feet of lumber; 7,500 doors; 37,000 window sashes; 4,665 casks of portland cement; and 5,000 yards of broken stone. The water supply of a cantonment was 2,500,000 gallons a day. Each cantonment had its own sewerage system, fire department, bakeries, ice plants and hospitals. A gigantic steam-heating plant was required for each. The task was really the erection of sixteen cities, each with accommodations for forty thousand inhabitants.

The actual construction work at each of the cantonments was under the supervision of an officer of the Quartermaster Corps, either regular or reserve, known as the Constructing Quartermaster. Under him was an assistant quartermaster. The Constructing Quartermaster was in full charge at each cantonment, directing the laying out of the buildings and supervising for the government the entire work of construction as carried on by the contractor. The personnel of the Contracting Quartermasters included a number of well-known civilian engineers who were given commissions as majors in the Quartermaster's Reserve Corps. In addition, several officers of the Regular Army Quartermaster's Corps acted in executive capacity.

Orders were given to the governors of fifteen states to muster in the federal service sixteen companies of engineers of the National Guard who were assigned to do the preliminary engineering work on the sixteen sites for cantonments for the National Army, one company to a cantonment. One company was ordered from each of the following states: Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Georgia, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Mississippi, Iowa, Kansas, Texas and California, and two companies were ordered from New Jersey. The first work of each company was to plot out the site chosen for the cantonment, to prepare preliminary plans showing the contractor where sewers, water pipes, wires, roads, regimental camps, and all necessary buildings and other works were to be placed.

Immediately, nine regiments of railroad engineers and one regiment of woodsmen and mill workers were organized as units of the National Army, and other forces were called before the general call which brought five hundred thousand men of the first increment into training at the cantonments.

INDUCTIONS UNDER DRAFT

Slightly over 2,800,000 of the registrants were inducted into military service, 2,541,000 through calls issued to local boards to furnish their allotted quotas, and 259,000 through inductions of individuals. Approximately 140,000 of the latter were inducted in October and during the first ten days in November for the Students' Army Training Corps. The inductions during each month are shown in the table below:

Month.	Men Inducted.	Month.	Men Inducted.
1917.		1918.	
September	296,678	May	373,063
October	163,644	June	301,941
November	35,721	July	401,147
December	20,320	August	282,898
		September	252,295
1918.		October	250,000
January	23,288	November	10,000
February	83,779		
March	132,484	Total	2,801,635
April	174,377		

With the exception of the Students' Army Training Corps and a few thousand of voluntary inductions, no men of the last registration were inducted into the army. This means that of the 10,481,000 registrants between the ages of twenty-one and thirty, approximately 2,630,000, or twenty-five per cent, were taken into military service through the draft. At the time of the signing of the armistice Class I of the twenty-one to thirty years old group was practically drained of men capable of rendering full military service. Those remaining classified therein were men qualified for limited service only, men granted temporary deferment on account of employment with the Emergency Fleet Corporation and men classed as delinquents on account of failure to file questionnaires. These groups constituted about six per cent of the total registrants. About four per cent of the registrants were placed in deferred classes on the ground of employment in a necessary industrial or agricultural enterprise, and about sixty-five per cent on all other grounds.

The table below shows the number and percentage of the entire army which was obtained through the draft and through sources other than the draft from each state.

State.	Number.	Per cent of Total.	State.	Number.	Per cent of Total.
New York	328,000	9.5	Connecticut	44,000	1.3
Pennsylvania	275,000	8.0	Maryland	43,000	1.3
Illinois	232,000	6.7	Nebraska	43,000	1.3
Ohio	185,000	5.4	Washington	39,000	1.1
Texas	155,000	4.5	Montana	34,000	1.0
Michigan	123,000	3.6	Colorado	31,000	.9
Missouri	115,000	3.3	Florida	31,000	.9
Massachusetts	114,000	3.3	South Dakota	28,000	.8
California	102,000	3.0	Oregon	26,000	.8
New Jersey	95,000	2.8	North Dakota	25,000	.7
Indiana	93,000	2.7	Maine	22,000	.6
Iowa	92,000	2.7	Idaho	17,000	.5
Wisconsin	87,000	2.5	Rhode Island	16,000	.5
Minnesota	86,000	2.5	Utah	16,000	.5
Georgia	79,000	2.3	District of Columbia	13,000	.4
Oklahoma	76,000	2.2	New Hampshire	12,000	.3
Kentucky	72,000	2.1	New Mexico	12,000	.3
North Carolina	71,000	2.1	Wyoming	11,000	.3
Tennessee	70,000	2.0	Arizona	10,000	.3
Alabama	67,000	1.9	Vermont	9,000	.3
Virginia	67,000	1.9	Delaware	7,000	.2
Louisiana	62,000	1.8	Nevada	5,000	.1
Kansas	59,000	1.7	Porto Rico	16,000	.5
Arkansas	59,000	1.7	Hawaii	6,000	.2
Mississippi	58,000	1.7	Alaska	2,000	.1
West Virginia	52,000	1.5			
South Carolina	49,000	1.4	Total	3,441,000	100.0

The following table shows the number by main geographical divisions. In studying these figures it should be borne in mind that the draft figures include voluntary enlistments on the part of the men who registered under the Selective Service Act.

Department.	Inducted.
Central	1,323,000
Eastern	828,000
Southeastern	546,000
Southern	253,000
Western	250,000
Northeastern	217,000
Otber	24,000
Total	3,441,000

In the fall of 1917, the first half-million men came in rapidly. During the winter, the accessions were relatively few, and those that did come in were largely used as replacements and for special services. In the spring of 1918, came the German drive, and with it urgent calls from France for unlimited numbers of men. Then over a period of several months the numbers of new men brought into the service mounted into the hundreds of thousands and reached their highest point in July, 1918, when 401,000 men were inducted into the service. During the succeeding months the numbers fell off considerably on account of the epidemic of influenza and with November the inductions ceased entirely due to the unexpected ending of the war.

Under the operation of the draft, the registrants were given physical examinations by the local draft boards in order that those men who were not of sufficient physical soundness and vigor for military life might be sorted out. Those who were found qualified for service were sent to camps. Here they were given another examination by army surgeons, and additional men were rejected because of the defects which had not been discovered in the first examination. Analysis of the records of physical examinations shows that the country boys made better records than those from the cities; the white registrants better than the colored; and native born better records than those of alien birth. These differences were so considerable that 100,000 country boys furnished for the military service 4,790 more soldiers than an equal number of city boys. Similarly, 100,000 whites furnished 1,240 more soldiers than did an equal number of colored registrants. Finally, 100,000 native-born registrants yielded 3,500 more soldiers than did an equal number of foreign born. The importance of these differences is to be appreciated by noting that an infantry regiment at full war strength contains 3,500 men.

The average American soldier, before he went to France, received six months of training in this country. After he landed overseas, he had two months of training before entering the battle line. The part of the battle line that he entered was in a quiet sector, and here he remained one month before going into an active sector and taking part in the hard fighting.

The experiences of thousands of soldiers differ widely from the typical figures just presented, but a careful study of the training data of nearly 1,400,000 men who actually fought in France gives the average results shown above.

The building of the cantonments was authorized in May, 1917. The last site was secured on July 6th, and on September 4th accommodations were ready for 430,000 men. Where, in all the history of Germany, did scientific "kultur" match these figures for American efficiency? This capacity was shortly increased to 770,000, an average capacity per cantonment of 48,000. Construction of the camps went forward at the same rapid pace. Although tents were provided for housing the soldiers, wooden buildings in considerable numbers were necessary. The capacity of the camps reached 684,000, giving a total camp and cantonment capacity of nearly a million and a half. Officers' training camps supplied officers to the number of one officer to every twenty men.

Shortly after the first of the new camps had been established, France and England sent to the United States some of their ablest officers who had seen service on the western front to bring to our training approved methods developed in the war. The instructors were not numerous, but the aid they rendered was of first importance. Gas instruction, bayonet instruction, machine gun, sniping, trench mortar and other training was efficiently given by these military specialists, who devoted most of their periods of instruction to gas. A total of 286 French instruction officers and 261 British instruction officers helped America train her army. In addition, the British detailed 226 non-commissioned officers as instructors, who were also assigned to different subjects in various training camps. The War Department report says of these men: "These groups of foreign instructors attached to training schools, divisions and other units, rendered service out of all proportion to their number. They were a significant contribution to our training program."

The real story of the training of the American draft army is as follows: On June 5, 1917, the men in question registered. By September, 1917, we had 500,000 men in this country training for overseas duty. We did not have 500,000 men in France until May, 1918, eight months later. It is probable that the millionth man who went overseas began training in December, 1917. He did not reach France until July, 1918, after seven months of training. Evidence of this character goes to show that for the first million men the standard of seven months' training was consistently maintained as an average figure.

In June, with the German drives in full swing, the Allies called on us to continue the extraordinary transportation of troops begun in April. The early movement had been met by filling up the divisions that sailed with the best trained men wherever they could be found. Divisions embarked after July 1st, had to meet shortages with men who were called to the colors in the spring. When November was reached, the average period of training in the United States had been shortened to close to four months, and the average for the period of July 1st to November 11th was probably five months.

For the first million men, then, seven months may be taken as the average training figure. For the second million, five months was the period of training on the average. This establishes an average for the army of six months as a period of training.

After reaching France, the troops were given an average of two months' training in quiet sectors before going into action in the center of the fight. However, many of the troops used as replacements in the days when the allied effort was at its zenith, were not given this two months' training period.

The induction of men in the last months of the war was carried forward at the greatest possible rate of speed, and every device for hastening the training of the men was used. The result fully justified the effort. More than 1,200,000 were thrown into the great Meuse-Argonne offensive while thousands of troops were engaged in other parts of the line. Our training camp officers stood up to the test; our men, with their intensive drilling in open order fighting, which characterized American training, routed the best of the German divisions from the Argonne forest and the valley of the Meuse.

CHAPTER VI

BEFORE AMERICA'S ENTRANCE

THE Germans had long been waiting for "der Tag." Their plans had long been made. They knew well that they would have to fight France as well as Russia. As for Italy, she would be neutral if she were not on their side, and England had troubles of her own with Ireland. Besides, England was too rich and prosperous to wish war. Even if she should fight, it would matter little, for she only had "a contemptible little army." What Germany really feared, if it could be called fear, was the great unorganized power of Russia. If that power could be brought into play, the millions of men, and the enormous resources of the empire of the Czar might cause trouble. But Russia was badly organized, and almost barbarous. It would take months before her armies could be mobilized. The German policy, therefore, was clear enough. They would dash to Paris, they would crush France by one great stroke. And then with France at their mercy they would turn to the east and deal with Russia at their leisure. They were absolutely confident. It would seem that they had calculated well. Their troops were magnificently trained, and wonderfully equipped. They were ready to move at but a word. They could put two soldiers on the field for every Frenchman. The march to Paris would be easy, and Germany would soon take a place in the sun where her shadow would fall over every other European nation. Now, at last, it would be "Deutschland über alles."

THE INVASION OF BELGIUM

And so, on the 4th of August, 1914, the Germans began their march toward Paris. The campaign had been worked out in every detail. The French frontier was too well fortified, they would go through Belgium and Luxemburg. To be sure they had pledged themselves by treaty to respect the neutrality of these countries, but treaties were only "scraps of paper."

The invasion of Belgium was the first great mistake of the Germans, for it brought England into the war and alienated the sympathy of the world.

The German armies came into France and Belgium in three mighty streams. The army of the Rhine marched directly into France in the south through the Vosges mountains; the army of the Moselle passed through Luxemburg, which was helpless; and the army of the Meuse, which was to make the great advance, marched into Belgium. The first great battle of the war was the struggle at Liége, which lasted for ten heroic days. Liége had been well fortified but its fortresses were old-fashioned and out of repair. It could not resist the great 42-centimeter guns. The Belgians were compelled to retire northward on Antwerp, Louvain and Brussels, but they threatened the German flank and kept a quarter of a million of German soldiers from taking part in the German advance. The German Army was delayed and this delay saved Europe. The British Army landed in France and the French Army was mobilized and brought up against them. For a time it seemed as if resistance to the German forces could be made effective.

If the French and English could form a line of battle from Verdun to the Sedan, connecting with the Belgian armies from Namur to Antwerp, the position would have been highly favorable. The German right would have been compelled to maneuver in a narrow area, and Namur would have been defended by the whole strength of the allied left center. But the French could not mobilize in time, and after reaching Namur the line turned sharply to the left along the river Sambre, forming a sharp salient. This salient depended upon the strength of the fortress of Namur. The English army was placed upon the left of the French line at the city of Mons. The first great battle between the allied forces and the German Army took place on August 20th, when the Germans attacked Namur, which soon fell. As in the case of Liége, its fortifications could not resist the great German guns. The French armies, along the Charleroi-Mons line were driven back, and the English, fighting desperately at Mons with 75,000 men and 250 guns, found themselves faced by 200,000 Germans with 50,000 more sweeping round their left, and the French to their right in full retreat.

Then began the famous retreat. Day after day they retired fighting. Again and again the English held, but without support, were compelled again to give way. The Germans captured fortress after fortress. On the 28th of August, Maubeuge of all the northern strongholds still held out. The French defense along the line of the Meuse was crushed, and a general retirement along the line of the Marne was ordered. The French center was also being steadily forced back by the great German armies, which had defeated it and which were now pushing in the direction of Rheims and Chalons. By September 3d, the allied armies were behind the line of the Marne. The long retreat was at an end.

It looked then as if Paris was at the mercy of the Germans. The French cavalry were within cannon shot of the forts of Paris and the French government left Paris for Bordeaux. But the French were not defeated yet. The great allied retreat was essentially strategic. The French and English armies were still intact. The German generals knew well that they could not attack Paris until they had crushed those armies. Von Kluck, instead of attacking Paris, swung to the south to maintain contact with the French and English line. The moment had come for the Allies to strike back.

BATTLE OF THE MARNE

Then came the famous battle of the Marne, when General Joffre, on the 6th of September, turned against the German Army and drove them back. On the morning of that day the great French Marshal issued the following order:

> At the moment when a battle on which the welfare of the country depends is about to begin, I feel it my duty to remind you that it is no longer the time to look behind. We have but one business on hand—to attack and repel the enemy. An army which can no longer advance will at all costs hold the ground it has won, and allow itself to be slain where it stands rather than give way. This is no time for faltering, and it will not be suffered. . . . .

Sir John French issued a similar order, and the German general commanding the 8th Corps declared in an order of the day:

> The object of our long and arduous marches has been achieved. The principal French troops have been forced to accept battle after having been continually forced back. The great decision is undoubtedly at hand. Everything depends on the result of tomorrow.

The battle lasted for four days, and the German armies were in full retreat. The most spectacular feat of the battle was the movement of General Gallieni's army defending Paris to attack the right wing of the German Army. In this maneuver every motor car in Paris was in line, and General Gallieni's force became the "army in taxicabs." The other great development of the battle was the attack of General Foch on the evening of September 9th on the German forces. He telegraphed to General Joffre, "The enemy is attacking my flank, my rear is threatened. I am, therefore, attacking in front." And he drove his army between Von Bulow and Von Hausen's Saxons, drove the Prussian Guards into the marshes of St. Gond and forced the Prussians and Saxons into their first great retreat. On the 11th and 12th of September, the Germans retreated beyond the Marne, and the French armies were solidly established on the ground gained.

THE AISNE FIGHTING

Then began what was called the battle of the Aisne. The German armies had entrenched themselves, they had chosen for their stand not the line of the Aisne but the crest of the plateau beyond. Trenches had been prepared there while the troops were passing through the Marne. The French made a desperate endeavor to drive them back. For a time the fortunes of war wavered. The battle lasted until the end of the month. It ended in a stalemate. The French now endeavored to outflank the Germans, pushing their army steadily to the north, but the Germans met this movement by a similar one. It became a race for the sea. The line was extended throughout France, and the allied troops. taking a lesson from the Germans, dug themselves into trenches from which they could not be driven.

The war became a war of attrition, and battle after battle took place without decisive result. The most important of these battles in 1914 was the battle of Ypres, which began on October 20th and lasted in various phases nearly for a month. At Ypres, the Germans were attempting to break through to the sea, but the line held.

CAMPAIGN IN THE EAST

Meantime, the campaign in the east had developed into a tremendous contest. The Russians had mobilized with greater speed than had been expected. It was necessary for them to fight both Germany and Austria. Western Russia projects as a great quadrangle into eastern Germany. It is bounded on the north by East Prussia, and on the south by Austria, while the western part reaches deeply into Germany itself. The Russians could not attack on the west until they had protected their flanks by the conquest of East Prussia on the north and Austrian Galicia on the south. They began the war promptly. The first clash took place when the Russian Army crossed the German frontier near Libau into East Prussia on August 3d. They then advanced steadily, driving the Germans before them and for a moment East Prussia was at their mercy. Germany became aroused. East Prussia was sacred soil. It was the cradle of the Prussian aristocracy. Forces were detached from the west and sent to the aid of the eastern army. A new commander was appointed. He was General Von Hindenburg, a veteran of the Franco-Prussian war, who had been for some years retired.

Then followed the battle of Tannenburg, in which the Russian armies were crushed, with enormous losses. After this victory, the German troops advanced to Augustov, but were compelled to retire. Meanwhile, the greater portion of the Russian Army were fighting in Galicia, and were meeting with greater success.

Austria had gathered together a force of a million men, but the Russian armies, under the command of the Grand Duke Nicholas, won victory after victory. On the 28th of August Tarnopol was captured. On September 4th Lemberg was occupied. The Russian armies moved toward Cracow, driving the Austrians before them. The great fortress of Jaroslav was captured in three days and Przemysl was besieged. The Grand Duke Nicholas issued a proclamation offering self-government to Poland. This led to demoralization of the Austrian armies. A considerable number of Czecho-Slovak troops deserted to the Russian army and Poland remained loyal to Russia.

The Germans then began an offensive in Poland. Their armies were directed toward Warsaw, and Von Hindenburg was personally in command. But every attempt to capture Warsaw was a failure. The German armies then turned to the south, and joining the Austrians drove back the Russian troops, who were threatening Cracow, and relieved Przemysl. But the Russians were reinforced and began a new advance that continued for the summer. The Austro-German forces were driven back, and once more Germany was threatening Cracow. Meanwhile, another attack upon Warsaw had turned out a failure, and by the beginning of 1915 both armies had come to the trench warfare so familiar in France.

During the year 1915, the Russians began with many successes. Przemysl was captured, and the Russians took possession of the great passes in the Carpathian mountains. But Germany was gathering the strongest army in its history, and on the 28th of April, it began a tremendous attack upon the Russian armies along the Austrian border. Soon the Russians were in full retreat. Town after town was given up. Przemysl surrendered only ten weeks after its capture by the Russians. Lemberg fell. The Germans pushed steadily forward. On August 5th, Warsaw was abandoned. The Grand Duke was retreating steadily, trying to save his armies by giving up the country.

On September 5th, the Emperor of Russia, himself, took command of the Russian forces, with General Alexiev as his Chief of General Staff. The Germans had now occupied Poland, but during September the German advance was checked. The Russian forces were extended in a line from Riga on the north, along the river Dvina down to Dvinsk. This line Von Hindenburg was unable to break. During the year 1916 the Russian armies fought with a new vigor, and the Germans were continually defeated, 200,000 men were captured, and on the southern part of the line the Russians regained a whole province. By the end of the year everything looked encouraging.

NEUVE CHAPELLE AND YPRES

Meanwhile, in France the warfare had been terrific but indecisive. Battle after battle took place, with terrific losses and varying success. In 1915 the British drive against Neuve Chapelle, beginning on March 10th, was the first great contest of the new British army against the Germans. The town was captured by the British and held against a determined German reaction. There was terrific slaughter, and the British paid a fearful price for the victory. On April 22d the Germans made a fierce attack on the Canadians at Ypres. In this battle, they for the first time, used poison gas. The Canadians were taken by surprise, but grimly held on and saved the day.

On February 21st began the long-continued battle of Verdun. It lasted for months, wave after wave of Germans being sent against the twenty-five miles of earthworks which protected the city, but the French were determined. Their battle-cry was "*Ils ne passeront pas!*" (They shall not pass), and the Germans did not pass. On the first of July came the battle of the Somme, which did not end until the 18th of November. This was the greatest effort of the British armies before the offensives of 1918. It surpassed the battle of Verdun in the numbers of men engaged and in its importance in the strategy of the campaign. It relieved Verdun, and detained the main German forces on the western front, giving Brussilov his chance in the east. The loss on both sides was terrible, and every yard gained by the British was paid for in blood.

JAPAN CAPTURES TSING-TAU

While France, Russia, and the British Empire were thus straining every power, other nations, one by one, had come to their aid. Japan was in from the beginning. She was

U. S. Official Photograph.

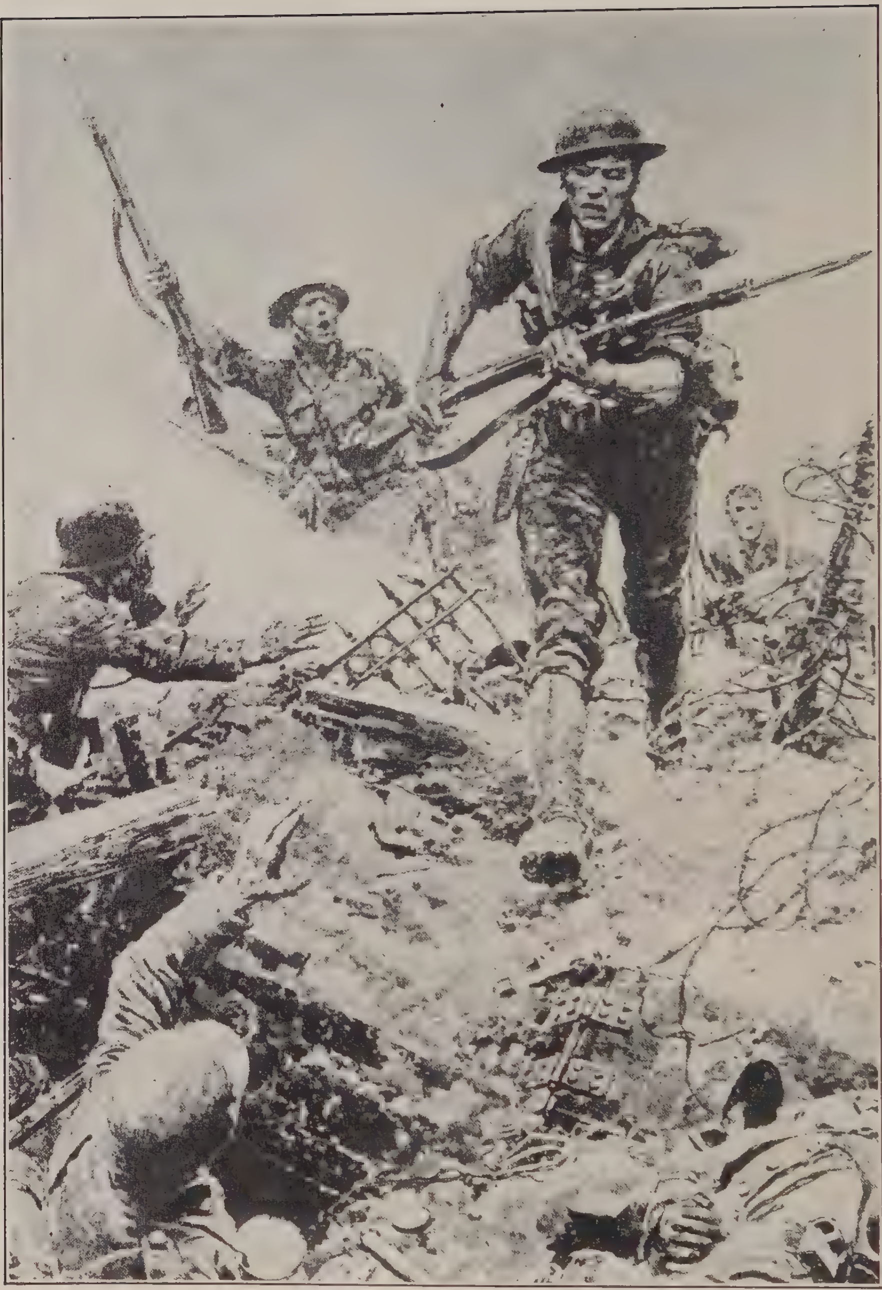
"FIRE"

Pounding the German lines opposite Baleycourt Woods, near Nixeville, Meuse, with French 340 millimeter guns on railway mounts manned by Yankee gunners of the 35th Coast Artillery, 80th Division. This gun hit two German Army Headquarters thirty kilometers distant.

U. S. Official Photograph.

LOADING A GIANT NAVAL GUN

One of the most remarkable achievements of the Navy Ordnance Department was building these great railway mounts for 14-inch naval guns. Each gun train was a complete unit with ammunition, repair, mess and bunk cars for the gun crew. The guns have a range of thirty miles.



CHARGE OF AMERICANS TO THE CRY OF "LUSITANIA!"

United States troops in a bayonet charge in the early summer of 1918. An officer reported that he heard on all sides the shout "Lusitania!" as though welcoming the hour of punishment for that German crime.

bound by treaty to aid Great Britain in the war. She also had been embittered against Germany by Germany's interference in the China-Japanese war, and her ambitions in connection with China made the German occupation of the Chinese province of Tsing-Tau highly offensive. She declared war on August 23, 1914, threw her fleet and her army against Tsing-Tau on the 27th of August, and accepted the surrender of Admiral Waldeck, the German governor, on November 6th. Later, Japanese cruiser squadrons patrolled the Pacific, and did duty in the China Sea and in the Indian Ocean. Japan aided Russia with military supplies and later landed troops in Eastern Siberia, in association with the United States and Great Britain, to protect the Czecho-Slovaks from the Bolsheviki.

ITALY'S AID

On May 23, 1915, Italy declared war on Austria-Hungary. Italy had been a member of the Triple Alliance, but according to the terms of the alliance, was bound to stand by Germany and Austria only in case of attack. She had refused to aid them in the beginning because they were the aggressors. Moreover, the feeling between Italy and Austria had never been friendly. The Austrians were still holding Italian provinces, and Italy felt toward Italia Irredenta as the French felt toward Alsace-Lorraine. The war was her opportunity. They demanded from Austria the restoration of Austria's Italian provinces. Negotiations lasted for some time, but finally Italy threw in her lot with the Allies on the basis of a private understanding, known as the Pact of London, entered into with Great Britain and France, by which she was to gain more than Austria could offer.

Italy began her attack on the very day on which war was declared. Her object was to occupy Trieste. At first she met with great success and by May 27th had moved across the Isonzo River to Monfalcone, sixteen miles northwest of Trieste. But she was held at that point. The Austrian Army had been strengthened by troops that had been originally assigned to the Austrian line in Galicia. Long and confused fighting followed, and when the United States entered the war, Italy was holding her own. Meantime Turkey joined the war on the side of the central powers. This was the result of German intrigue, carried on for many years. The Turkish army had been reorganized by the Germans, under the direction of General Liman von Sanders. Turkish statesmen believed that Germany would win and they saw in an alliance with her a chance to recover their lost provinces in Europe. The Turkish people at the beginning appeared to sympathize with France and Great Britain, who had long been the friends and allies of the Turkish government.

THE WAR IN THE ORIENT

The plan of Turkey was to attack Russia in Trans-Caucasia, to send an expedition against the Suez Canal and another toward the Persian Gulf. The British were ready for them. They were driven from the Suez Canal, and a British expedition was sent to the Persian Gulf where it occupied Kurna at the junction of the Tigris and the Euphrates, and entrenched itself there to establish a barricade against a hostile advance upon India. In Trans-Caucasia, the Turkish army under Enver Pasha was sent against the Russians, and on December 25, 1914, they were defeated at Khorason. In 1915, the British determined, for political reasons, to capture Bagdad. Their forces at Kurna were reinforced, and, under command of General Townshend, moved north to Kut-El-Amara, which they captured on September 29th. They continued the advance, but the Turks determined to defend Bagdad, and gathering a great army they forced the British to retreat to Kut. After a long siege and several desperate attempts by the British to send relief, Townshend was compelled on April 28, 1916, to surrender to the Turks. The surrender of the English created a world-wide sensation. It was a great blow to the prestige of Great Britain in the Orient. A new expedition was at once organized to capture Bagdad, which drove the Turks before them in great confusion, recaptured Kut-El-Amara February 26, 1917, and occupied Bagdad on March 11th.

BRITISH FAILURE AT GALLIPOLI

Meantime, England had carried the war to the Dardanelles, and here occurred another British disaster. The

Peninsula of Gallipoli is a tongue of land about fifty miles long, varying in width from twelve to two or three miles. It is a mass of rocky hills, hard to climb and easy to protect. It lies on the northern side of the Straits of the Dardanelles, and guards the entrance to the Sea of Marmora. Through the Dardanelles, guarded on each side by forts and batteries, covered with mine fields, it was necessary to pass to reach Constantinople. Yet the British determined to make the attempt. They reasoned that if Constantinople could be captured, Turkey would be forced to retire from the war. Easy communication with Russia would be established, opening up for the Allies the great Russian grain supply of which the need was already being felt. Bulgaria then meditating her attack upon Serbia, would be brought to terms, and Greece, which under King Constantine was inclined to aid Germany, would not dare to move.

It was a magnificent conception. The expedition was planned with the greatest care, and it was near success. The attack was made at first by the fleet alone. It began on the 19th of February, 1915. The English and French fleet passed up the Dardanelles smashing the Turkish forts and clearing up the mines for a distance of four miles. Then a detachment of marines was sent to shore, but was compelled to retreat to the boats. The forts at Cape Helles, at Sedd-El-Bahr and at Dardanelles were silenced. But on the 18th, an endeavor to pass the Narrows, about halfway up the Dardanelles, failed with serious loss of ships and men, and the allied fleet retired from the Dardanelles.

Meanwhile, an expeditionary force was gathered. The main portion of it was composed of divisions from Australia and New Zealand, the Anzacs. The movement began on April 23d. The attack at the beginning seemed to be successful. The allied troops were landed at the southern end of the peninsula, and the Turks were pushed back. On June 4th a general attack was made with some of the most terrific fighting seen in the war. But the net result was an advance of about 500 yards. Strategy was then used and an expedition sent to Suvla Bay, on the western part of the peninsula to threaten the Turkish communications. This expedition, however, failed and although the Turks were paying heavily for their success it became evident that the allied expedition was a failure, and it was withdrawn in December. Great Britain's loss in officers and men at Gallipoli was 112,921.

GERMANY'S LOST COLONIES

While the great struggle was going on in Europe, Germany was losing her colonies in Africa. She had hoped much from the South African Union, and a systematic propaganda had been instituted to induce the Boers to break with the British. Many leaders of the Boers sympathized with Germany, and in the fall of 1914 a rebellion, under the command of General Beyers and General De Witt was organized. But General Louis Botha, one of the great Boer commanders and statesmen, and General Jan Christian Smuts stood honorably by the new state to which they had sworn allegiance. A Union Defence Force was mobilized and martial law proclaimed. A series of battles ensued, ending in the rout of General De Witt in the battle of Marquard on November 12th. General Botha then planned the invasion of German South West Africa, which began on January 5, 1915, and ended in the complete overthrow of German power in that territory. Then came Kamerun and East Africa. More than a million square miles of territory were seized by the Allies. The stiffest fighting was in German East Africa, where in the beginning the Germans were on the offensive, only to be defeated later by the British forces under General Tighe, with the occupation of German East Africa, the German colonies in Africa were lost.

THE DESOLATION OF SERBIA

To Serbia, whose refusal to yield to Austrian demands brought on the war, the war brought desolation. The first Austrian endeavor to overrun her territories was successfully resisted. But in the fall of 1915 she found herself surrounded by foes. A new Austrian Army had been organized and stiffened by German reinforcements. Bulgaria turned upon her, and King Constantine of Greece refused to come to her help. Her territory was overrun, and her armies driven from the country. An allied force sent to her aid arrived too late and entrenched itself at Saloniki, where it organized the forces which ultimately were to crush Bulgaria and start the movement which ended the war.

The entrance of Bulgaria into the war was the end of a long intrigue. Bulgaria had been in the market waiting for the highest bidder. It had made up its mind that Germany was certain of victory. It owed its very existence as an independent state to Russia, and before it entered the war public opinion in Bulgaria was largely pro-ally, but the Bulgarians hated Serbia, who had got the better of them in the second Balkan War, and they were ready to fight so long as their armies were directed against that nation.

During the whole of this contest, a political struggle was going on in Greece between King Constantine and the great Greek statesman Venizelos, who was a friend of the Allies. Greece was kept out of the war, but King Constantine was finally dethroned, and the armies of Greece joined the allied forces in the latter period of the war.

THE CRUSHING OF ROUMANIA

On August 27, 1916, Roumania entered the war on the side of the Allies. She had tried long to remain neutral, but Russian intrigue forced her to take part. Germany was ready for her. The German armies, under General Von Mackensen, crushed the Roumanian forces, and on December 6th entered Bucharest.

THE WAR AT SEA

One of the main factors in Germany's defeat was her weakness on the sea. When the war broke out her navy ranked second among the navies of the world, but from the beginning, the navy of Great Britain took control of the ocean. The great war splendidly illustrated Captain Mahan's dictum that sea power is the controlling factor in any contest between great nations. It was the British blockade of the German coast that so beat the German power that they finally gave up, without attempting the desperate defence that they themselves had met with, in France. They could not obtain supplies nor prevent the Allies from obtaining them. They could not hinder the transportation of the American millions across the water.

From the date of the declaration of war the oceans of the world were practically rid of German warships and closed to their mercantile marine, despite the employment of submarines. It was the diabolical use of the U-boat that brought America into the war, and the coming of America meant a quietus on Germany's hopes for success.

The German Navy remained for the most part in harbor, but there was one great naval battle that must be recorded. This was the Battle of Jutland, which took place on the 31st of May, 1916. The British fleet was commanded by Admiral Jellicoe, and the German by Vice-Admiral Scheer. The first reports from this battle indicated a German victory, and in fact, the British losses exceeded those of the Germans. But the German fleet was driven from the ocean, and never again dared to venture on the seas. The British lost fourteen ships and 6,617 men, while the Germans admitted a loss of eleven ships and 2,863 men. That this was the extent of the German loss is not believed by the British Admiralty. The Battle of Jutland was the greatest naval battle in the world. Every form of modern science was used in the combat. In the air were seaplanes and zeppelins; underneath the water were the submarines. The great battleships were protected by screens of destroyers, and the torpedo boats were making the waters dangerous. Admiral Jellicoe was criticized for his prudence, but he understood the situation well and should be judged by the result. The next time the German fleet appeared upon the sea was when it sailed for Scapa Flow, there to be interned in accordance with the terms of the armistice.

CHAPTER VII

"Lafayette, We Are Here"

AMERICAN blood was to be shed on foreign fields in the new crusade for world democracy. That was decided when Marshal Joffre at the head of the French Mission to America appealed in the spring of 1917 for American soldiers at the earliest possible moment for the French battle front.

Pacifists and persons whose sympathies were pro-German endeavored in vain to prevent or to delay the sending of American soldiers to France. It was argued that the Allies would win, through the weight of munitions and wealth that would be placed at their disposal by the United States, and that the sacrifice of American lives would be unnecessary. Against these pleas, Joffre and the leaders of the group favoring a strong American policy pointed out the increasing German pressure on the western front and the weakening of French and British resistance.

On May 19, 1917, the President of the United States announced that a division of the United States regulars would be sent to France at the earliest date practicable, to be commanded by Major-General John J. Pershing. The Secretary of the Navy, also the same day, announced that 2,600 marines would accompany the Pershing expedition. These announcements were the settlement of a question about which there had been much difference of opinion. A bill had been passed by Congress authorizing the formation of four divisions of volunteers at the pleasure of the President, of which it was intended that former President Roosevelt should be placed in command. The President then decided not to avail himself of the volunteer divisions, but to hand over the conduct of the war to professional soldiers. The announcement also made clear that American troops were to be sent to France, and that orders had been given for the formation of nine regiments of army engineers, which were to be sent to France as quickly as possible to build the railroads used as military communications.

Major-General Pershing was one of the most distinguished officers of the American Army. During the war with Spain he had served in Philippines, and later had been an observer for the government in the Russo-Japanese War. He was in command of the American expedition into Mexico, which had sought to capture Villa. General Pershing at once gathered a staff which consisted of fifty-three officers and 146 men, including privates and civilian attachés, and sailed for England, arriving there safely on June 8th. He was received with great ceremony by a deputation consisting of the Lord Mayor of Liverpool, the admiral in command of the port, a British general with a guard of honor, and a regimental band which played the "Star Spangled Banner."

In response to this most enthusiastic greeting he gave the following message to the British public: "We are very proud and glad to be the standard bearers of our country in this great war for civilization, and to land on British soil. The welcome which we have received is magnificent and deeply appreciated. We hope in time to be playing our part, and we hope it will be a big part, on the western front."

General Pershing was then taken to London in an official state car, attached to a special train, and was received in London by Lord Derby, Secretary of State for War, General Lord French and other high officers of the British Army, the United States Ambassador, and Admiral Sims of the United States Navy. Every possible honor was shown him, and the popular greeting was full of enthusiasm. On the next day he was presented to King George at Buckingham Palace by General Lord Brooke, commander of the 12th Canadian Infantry Brigade. In receiving him the King said: "It has been the dream of my life to see the two great English-speaking nations more closely united. My dreams have been realized. It is with the utmost pleasure that I welcome you at the head of the American contingent to our shores."

On June 13th, General Pershing arrived at Boulogne, where he was greeted by General Dumas, commanding the northern region. It was a historic moment—the first time a soldier in American uniform had landed on the European continent, with sword in hand, for the purpose of using it against an enemy. Said General Dumas: "I salute the United States of America, which has now become united to the United States of Europe." On the landing quay was a detachment of French Infantry in battle uniform, who had only recently come from the trenches. As the American general passed they came to salute and stood like iron statues as he passed down the line.

General Pershing was met by a large deputation representing the French Government and the French and British Armies and Navies. Great crowds gathered in the streets and greeted the American commander with tremendous enthusiasm. In Paris he received the greatest reception given to anyone up to that time, since the beginning of the war. The streets were filled with cheering crowds, held back by dense ranks of soldiers, which patrolled the route of the party from the Gard du Nord to the Hotel de Crillon, at which the General made his headquarters. As the American party passed, tens of thousands of American flags were waved and cries of "Vive l'Amérique" became a sustained roar all along the way. Bands at the station played the "Star Spangled Banner" and the "Marseillaise." Among those who greeted him were Marshal Joffre, M. Viviani, General Foch and Ambassador Sharp. In the evening General Pershing dined at the American Embassy, where he met the chief members of the Cabinet and officers of the army and navy. General Pershing was received as the representative, the symbol of the American power that was coming to the rescue of the French people, and recognizing this he acted with great tact.

On June 14th, the next day after his arrival in France, he visited the tomb of Napoleon, and stood with uncovered head before the resting place of the famous French soldier. The ceremony connected with this visit was of a striking character. As the American party entered the grounds of the Hotel des Invalides they passed a detachment of veterans of French wars, thrown up at salute. Passing into the vast rotunda, with its walls hung with battle flags, the party proceeded below to the crypt where the sarcophagus of Napoleon reposed. Entrance to this crypt is restricted to crowned heads or the rulers of states. Conducted by Marshal Joffre, General Pershing and his staff proceeded to the crypt. The great key was inserted in the brass door, and the French escort stepped aside, leaving General Pershing facing the door alone. He turned the key and opened the door. From an alcove inside of the crypt, the governor of the Invalides took Napoleon's sword, handed it to General Pershing, who held it at salute and then kissed the hilt. The same ceremony was followed with the cross of the cordon of the Legion of Honor. This was the greatest honor France ever bestowed on any man. No dignitary of France nor foreign king had ever before been allowed to hold the historic relics in his hand.

After his visit to the Invalides, General Pershing was received by President Poincaré, and later visited the Chamber of Deputies, where the deputies arose and stood cheering as the General entered the diplomatic box. Premier Ribot and M. Viviani made eloquent orations in honor of the United States, after which General Pershing was compelled to respond to another demonstration.

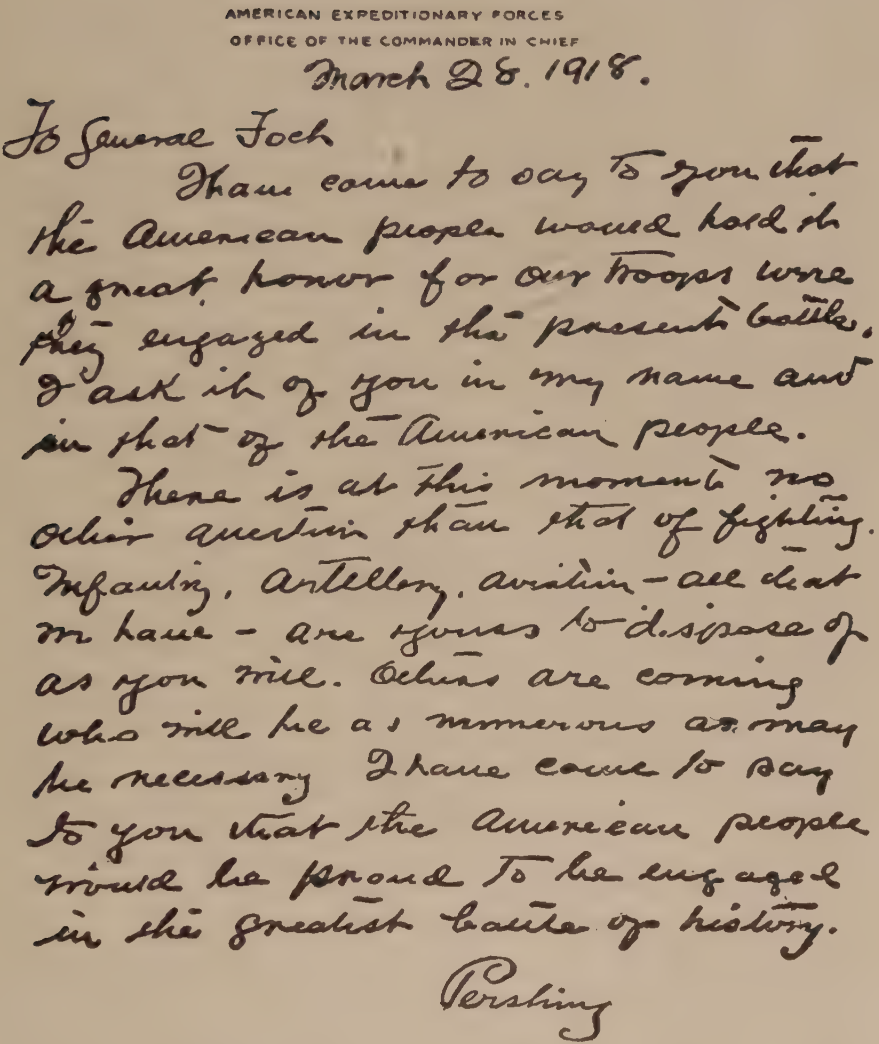
On June 15th General Pershing and General Joffre were given a remarkable reception by the people of Paris, as they stood bareheaded together on the balcony of the military club looking down on the excited crowd.

The climax of the welcome came in the afternoon when he visited Picpus Cemetery, where he placed a wreath of American Beauty roses on the tomb of Lafayette. The ceremony was brief and impressive. The Marquis de Chambrun, a descendant of Lafayette, said a few words welcoming General Pershing, who replied simply, expressing the great pleasure of every American to visit the tomb of one who had done so much for the United States.

General Pershing expressed the feeling of the American people when he said, as he approached the tomb:

"Lafayette, we are here."

His third, and last day, in Paris was occupied by official calls, and a visit to the Senate, where he was received with a



AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES
OFFICE OF THE COMMANDER IN CHIEF

March 28. 1918.

To General Foch

I have come to say to you that the American people would hold it a great honor for our troops were they engaged in the present battle. I ask it of you in my name and in that of the American people.

There is at this moment no other question than that of fighting. Infantry, artillery, aviation - all that we have - are yours to dispose of as you will. Others are coming who will be as numerous as may be necessary I have come to say to you that the American people would be proud to be engaged in the greatest battle of history.

Pershing

Facsimile of the historic letter from the Commander-in-Chief of the American Expeditionary Forces, placing the American troops at the disposal of the Generalissimo of the Allied armies.

great demonstration, and on the next day he proceeded to his work of organizing American participation in the war.

General Pershing had been preceded to France by various special units of the American Army, and on May 24th the first United States combatant corps went to the front under Captain E. I. Tinkham and Lieutenant Scully, of Princeton. They consisted mainly of Cornell undergraduates. Other American sections drilling for active participation in the fighting included detachments from Andover, Dartmouth, Harvard, Johns-Hopkins, Yale, Chicago, Princeton and Williams College. Most of them intended to serve in the American Ambulance Corps, but many had joined the fighting forces after the United States entered the war. According to an official statement issued by the British War Office on May 28th, including the Americans serving in the British and French armies there were nearly one hundred thousand Americans in France.

The first fighting contingents of the United States Army arrived in France on June 26, 1917. The transports which carried them had been attacked by submarines, but they arrived safely. They were under the command of Major-General William L. Sibert. A wild welcome was given them as they drew near the quay, and the town took on a holiday appearance. They were soon transferred to a camp near the port where they were inspected by General Pershing. General Pershing issued a statement declaring his satisfaction with the appearance of the men, and with the provisions which had been made for their comfort, and issued a general order emphasizing the necessity of good behaviour.

The 4th of July, 1917, was enthusiastically celebrated throughout Paris. There the chief feature of interest was the presence of a battalion of United States troops, which was about to leave for training behind the battle front. The streets were thronged with enthusiastic spectators, and the Stars and Stripes were flying from every building and even from automobiles, cabs, carts and horses' bridles.

The greeting given the American troops who passed through England was quite as enthusiastic. On August 15th a great demonstration took place when a large contingent of United States troops marched through the streets of London, escorted by the famous bands of the English, Scotch and Irish Guards. In every possible way the English sought to show their appreciation of the fact that America had come to their aid in the great struggle.

The story of the life of the American Army behind the lines of France would fill a volume. The hospitality of the French people had something pathetic in it. They were expecting miracles of their new allies—and miracles were performed, as the world now knows.

Camps were constructed on a huge scale. Enormous barracks were erected, railways built and telegraphs and telephones installed under the direction of American skilled workmen, and soon there were Y. M. C. A. canteens, Red Cross canteens, clubs for officers and men, theaters and moving pictures for the army, and a prodigious amount of food, all from America. In every little old French village American soldiers were billeted in cottages and farm houses. They were wonderful beings to their French hosts, and they did their best to entertain them.

The training of the troops was carried on in the most elaborate fashion. Most of them had been trained in America, before they came to France, but France was the finishing school. The aviators were perfected in their work, the artillery and the infantry put under charge of French experts and taught the latest developments in the art of war. And all was done with a business-like determination.

Actual and intensive training began on July 25th. Trenches were dug in way of practice with an enthusiasm equal to that with which soldiers dig themselves in under actual artillery fire. Dummies were constructed for bayonet practice, and the men taught the methods of attack. Instruction in gas masks was begun, scouting, trench raiding, target practice and operations of all kinds, which might be called for in actual combat, were made the subject of careful instruction. Lectures were delivered by American and allied officers, who were experts in modern warfare. Under such training it was no wonder that by the spring of 1918 American troops were able to hold their own against the best soldiers of Europe.

CHAPTER VIII

America's Opening Gun

WHEN the troops of the United States had made sufficient progress in the training camps, to which they were sent in central France, detachments of them were sent from time to time into the trenches for advanced training under fire. During those periods of training in the trenches several local combats took place, reports of which began to come to America in the fall of 1917. The first such announcement was contained in a dispatch dated October 27, 1917, in which it was stated that the first American shot had been fired by the artillery and that American infantry had marched into the trenches. The section of the front in which this took place was the region of the Vosges mountains close to the point where the canal connecting the Marne with the Rhine crosses the border between France and Lorraine.

The first gun was fired by a red-haired gunner as his comrades in the ranks and the assembled officers cheered. The first shell case was sent to President Wilson. The gun used in firing the first shot was one of the famous French 75's. The first American troops to enter the trenches received a most enthusiastic welcome. Every American was shaken by the hand, some were hugged and even kissed on both cheeks. A few days later the first expedition of the Americans into No Man's Land followed. The first battalions of Americans in the trenches were relieved by others who underwent similar experiences. The first casualty reported was that of an officer who was wounded in the leg by shrapnel on October 21st.

On November 3d, a salient occupied for instruction by a company of American infantry was raided by the Germans. The official statement issued at Washington said, "The enemy put down a heavy barrage fire, cutting off the salient from the rest of the men. Our losses were three killed, five wounded and twelve captured or missing. The enemy's losses not known. One wounded German was taken prisoner." In this raid the Germans met with strong resistance, although the Americans seemed to have been taken by surprise, and thrown into confusion. The Germans left the trench as soon as possible taking their dead and wounded with them, and abandoning several rifles and a number of knives and helmets.

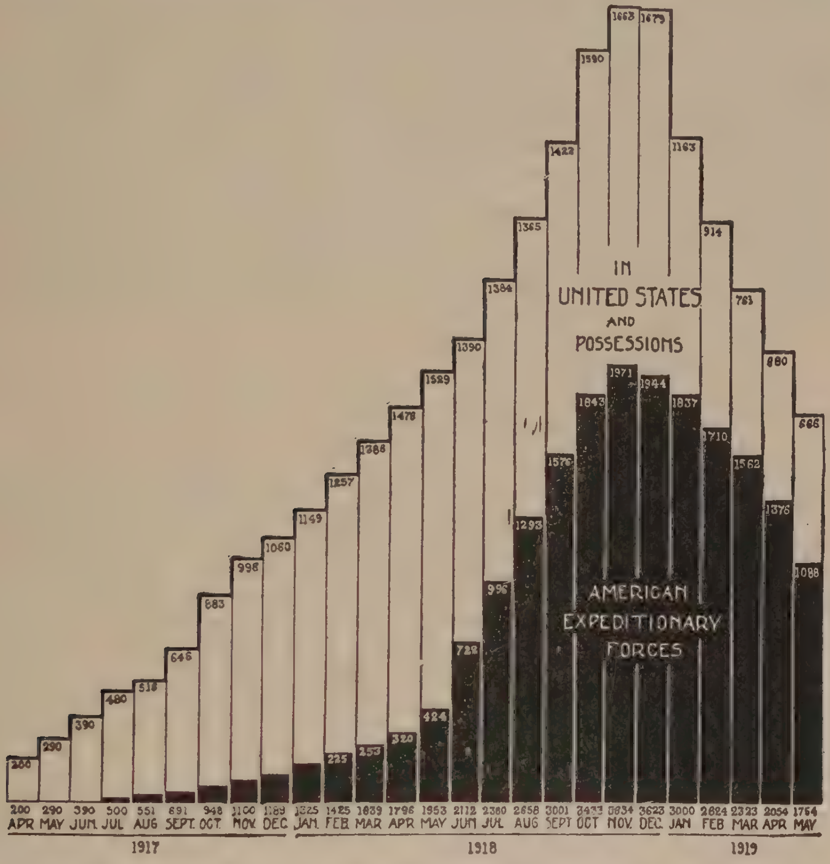


Chart Showing, in Thousands, the Number of Soldiers in the American Army on the First of Each Month

The three men killed, the first Americans who actually fought in battle in this war, were Corporal James B. Gresham, of Evansville, Indiana, Private Thomas F. Enright, of Pittsburgh, Pa., and Private Merle D. Hay, of Glidden, Iowa.

Their burial took place on November 6th with great formality. The French officer commanding the section paid tribute to the fallen Americans in an eloquent address, ending with the words, "We will, therefore, ask that the mortal remains of these young men be left here, be left with us forever. We inscribe on the tombs—'Here lie the first soldiers of the Republic of the United States to fall on the soil of France for Liberty and Justice.' Private Enright, Private Gresham, Private Hay, in the name of France, I thank you. May God receive your souls. Farewell."

While these men were the first American fighting men who lost their life in the great war, they were not the first Americans belonging to the American Expeditionary Forces to lose their lives. On September 4, 1918, the United States War Department authorized the following statement:

> Today is the anniversay of the first casualties in the American Expeditionary Forces. The four men killed and the nine wounded were members of the Medical Department of the army, noncombatants engaged in merciful work.
>
> On September 4, 1917, a German airplane attacked the hospital groups at Dannes Camiers, where the members of United States Army Bases No. 5 (Harvard unit, Boston) and No. 12 (Northwestern University, Chicago) were operating British Hospitals Nos. 11 and 18, respectively. Five bombs fell in or close to the ward barracks, and their explosion resulted in the death or injury of the first members of the American Expeditionary Forces killed by the enemy in the performance of their duty. The names of the killed follow:
>
> First Lieutenant William Fitzsimmons, Private (first class) Leslie G. Woods, Private (first class) Rudolph Rubine, Jr., Private (first class) Oscar C. Tugo.

The first officer of an American unit to fall in action was Second Lieutenant Jefferson Feigl, 7th Field Artillery, of the famous 1st Division. His death came at the position of Battery F, near Ramboucourt on March 21, 1918, the first day of the great German drive toward Amiens. He was buried at Manders, just back of the old trench lines north of Toul. Extraordinary honors were paid to the dead officer in the funeral ceremonies. All of the high officers of his command including Major-General Summerall, Brigadier-General Holbrook and other artillery officers were in attendance.

U. S. Official Photograph

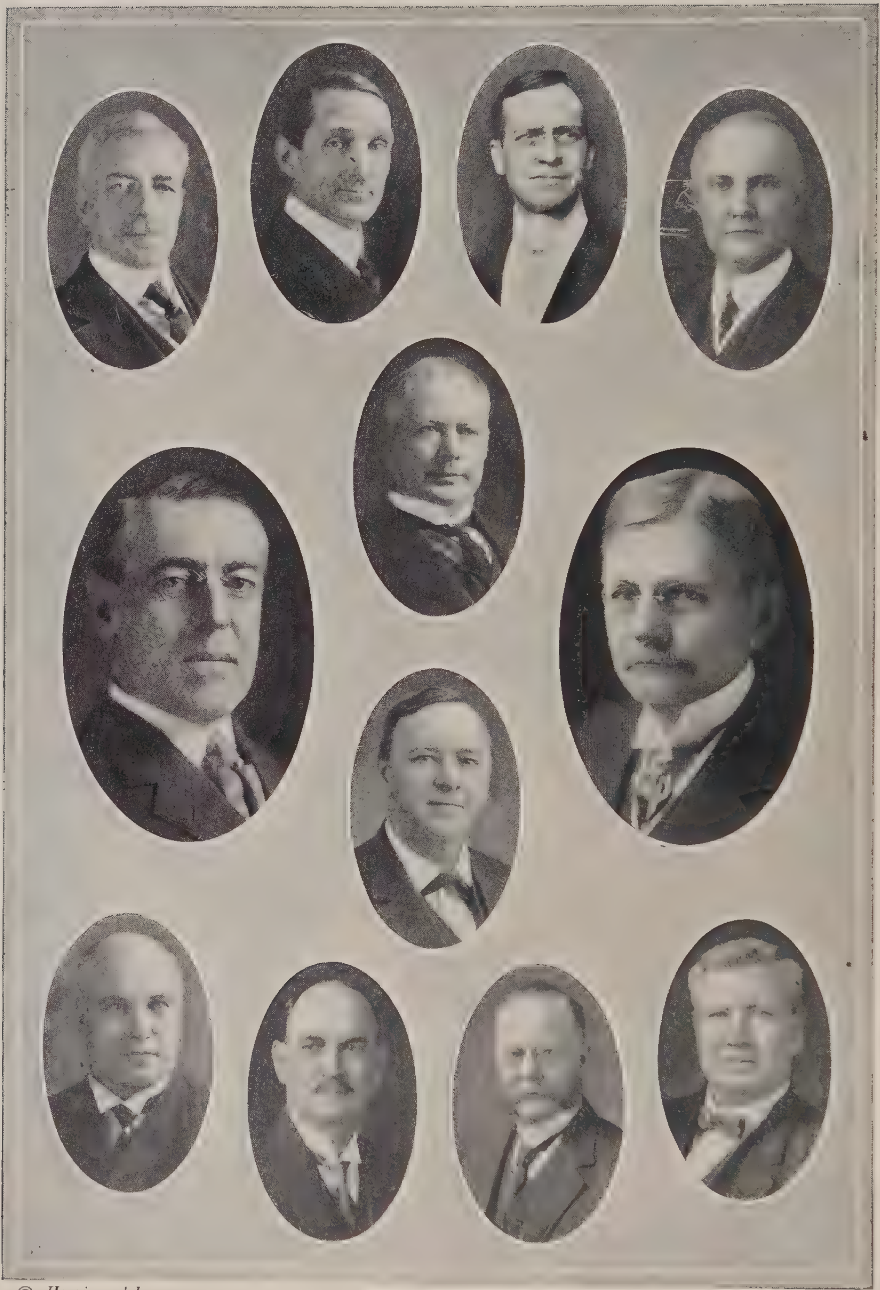
THE BATTERY WHICH FIRED THE FIRST SHOT

Battery C, 6th Field Artillery, 1st Division, which fired the first gun for the American Army.

U. S. Official Photograph.

A "75" IN ACTION

One of the famous French 75 millimeter guns manned by gunners of Battery C, 10th Field Artillery, 3d Division, shelling Bois de Foret, located four kilometers to the northeast of their position; Madeline Farm, near Nautillois, Meuse, October 18, 1918.



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THE WAR CABINET

Top row: Robert Lansing, Sec'y of State; Wm. G. McAdoo, Sec'y of the Treasury, Director-General of Railroads; Newton D. Baker, Sec'y of War; Thomas W. Gregory, Attorney-General; *Center, left:* President Woodrow Wilson; *Upper:* Albert S. Burleson, Postmaster-General; *lower:* Josephus Daniels, Sec'y of the Navy; *right:* Thomas R. Marshall, Vice-President; *lower row:* Franklin K. Lane, Sec'y of the Interior; David F. Houston, Sec'y of Agriculture; William C. Redfield, Sec'y of Commerce; William B. Wilson, Sec'y of Labor.

General Pershing sent the following letter to Colonel Fred Feigl, New York City, the dead officer's father:

American Expeditionary Forces,

Office of Commander-in-Chief,
France, August 3, 1918.

My dear Colonel Feigl:

I have had a very careful investigation made of the circumstances of the death of your son, Lieutenant Jefferson Feigl, concerning whom you wrote me under date of May 24, 1918.

I found that as he entered his battery position, near Beaumont, France, on March 2, 1918, upon returning from his tour of duty at the observation post in his command, he was struck by a fragment of a shell from a hostile battery which had suddenly opened fire.

Lieutenant Feigl was unquestionably the type and exemplar of the best in American spirit and action, for he risked and gave to his country his most precious possession—his life.

I am glad to send to you, his father, this acknowledgment of deep sympathy for you and my appreciation of his and your great sacrifice.

John J. Pershing,
Commander-in-Chief, American Expeditionary Forces.

It is worthy of note that the American Army's first offensive as an organization was launched from the vicinity of Lieutenant Feigl's grave.

As time went on the Americans and the Germans engaged in a series of trench raids and skirmishes with incidental sniping and artillery fire. In this preliminary warfare the Americans suffered a certain number of casualties. By the end of the year they were occupying certain sectors of the line, and by February 5th it was announced that American troops were occupying the sector northwest of Toul, which indicated that they were on the south side of the St. Mihiel salient. The placing of the American troops in the Lorraine section of the line had a sentimental as well as a practical value. This station would place them in the front of the effort to recover for France their lost provinces of Alsace-Lorraine. It was also at that time "a quiet sector of the front," and therefore, suitable for training inexperienced troops. The American troops engaged in these first skirmishes were those of the 1st Division under the command of Major-General Robert L. Bullard, and several lively combats took place, of which the most important was that of Seicheprey on

April 20th, in which the Americans were rather roughly treated.

The Toul sector was not the only sector held by United States troops. On February 22d it was announced that American units were taking part in the defense of the famous Chemin-des-Dames sector along the Aisne. On March 6th they were reported as holding a sector in Lorraine east of Luneville near the border between France and German Lorraine. They were also reported in the Champagne sector. A report of casualties published by the War Department on March 15th indicated a total loss of 1,722 American troops, of which 1,212 had been killed.

Meanwhile, the American troops had passed all the preliminary stages of training, and according to General Pershing's report "By March 21st, when the German offensive in Picardy began we had four divisions with experience in the trenches, all of which were equal to any demands of battle action. The crisis which this offensive developed was such that our occupation of an American sector must be postponed."

The German offensive in Picardy was the first of the great drives in the spring of 1918 which the Germans were undertaking with the hope of winning the war before the American Army would reach its full development. In the spring of 1918 Russia was out of the war. It is true that the Peace Treaty of Brest-Litovsk did not bring about complete quiet on the eastern front, but the great mass of German troops on that front could now be withdrawn and incorporated in the armies of the west. For a time, at least, Germany was able to gather almost her whole strength on her western front. The German High Command knew well what was going on in America. They knew of the tremendous efforts that were being made across the seas to train and supply an army which all alone when fully developed would have been able to crush their greatest strength. And they knew that if the war was to be won at all it must be won now before the American Army could be sufficiently trained and brought to the front in great numbers.

The commanding officers in France and England had a simple problem. All they had to do was to hold out until the

American armies should be able to act. In the spring the forces of France and England on paper, at least, outnumbered the German Army even with their reinforcements. The armies of Great Britain in France numbered something over two million men, and the number of French soldiers was between four and five million. Including the Belgians, Portuguese, Russian and Polish troops, the allied forces must have numbered, at least, 8,500,000 men. The Germans on the western front before the Russian revolution numbered probably four million five hundred thousand men, and their reinforcements from their eastern front probably increased their strength to six million men.

It would, therefore, seem to be an easy proposition for the English and the French to hold the Germans at bay until two or three million fresh American troops should be added to their strength. Yet it was not so easy as it might appear. The allied forces were under different commands, and it was with great difficulty that arrangements could be made by which they would be able to act in harmony. Moreover, the German troops were old soldiers, trained from boyhood in the art of war, commanded by splendidly trained officers. The English especially could not match them. The comparatively few trained English officers of England's "contemptible little army" at the beginning of the war were now lying by thousands in heroes' graves. The English armies were officered by men who four years before were engaged in business or in peaceful professions. The French were better off, but they, too, had been bled white in the early years of the terrible struggle. Moreover, in an offensive of such magnitude as this it is always possible for the attacking side to outnumber the defending side at any given point by elaborate concentration of as many troops as possible at a point only known by the attacking commanders. A defense against such an attack would be difficult in any case, and it was all the more difficult because of the divided command among the Allies.

Recognizing this, the allied governments came to an agreement to place all of the allied armies under a single command, and on March 28th General Ferdinand Foch, already famous as the greatest strategist in Europe, was made Commander-in-Chief of the armies of the Allies. This was one of the most important acts of the allied governments during the whole of the war. It was strongly approved by the United States which exerted its whole influence in its favor. From that time the direction of the allied campaign was magnificently conducted.

General Foch took command at a very critical time. The great German drive through Picardy was in full force. This drive had as its object to drive a wedge between the French and British armies.

This would have enabled the Germans to reach the Channel by way of the Somme, and thereby isolate most of the British Army and the entire Belgian and Portuguese armies in the north. A corollary of such an isolation would have been a movement south on Paris. The Germans, moreover, had selected a point where their railways allowed them the greatest possible concentration of troops, and where the Allies were relatively weak.

In the first stage of the battle they first eliminated the Cambrai salient so as to protect their northern flank, and then concentrated their attack between St. Mihiel and La Fèrek, where the French and British armies joined. The initial bombardment preceding the advance against the Cambrai salient began at eight o'clock on the morning of March 21st, and extended from Ypres on the north as far south as the Oise. The infantry attack which followed penetrated the first and second lines on a sixteen-mile front from Lagnicourt to Gauche Wood, then in rapid succession the British positions on the north between Arras and La Fère were attacked.

By March 25th the Germans had captured an area of about five hundred square miles, and had penetrated beyond Croisilles, Bapaume, Peronne, Brie, Nesle and the forest northeast of Noyon. By March 27th they had recovered the entire battlefield of the Somme, occupying the British position at Albert and taking Roye and Noyon from the French. On the 29th the French counter-attacked, recovering a portion of their lost ground but west of this position the Germans penetrated seven miles on a twelve-mile front, and enveloped

Montdidier. Further north Chauny and Hamm were both captured and Bapaume invested.

On the 27th the British were forced to retreat on a wide front on both sides of the Somme. By April 8th the German line had been expanded from seventy-five miles to 125 miles, the ground gained being equal to eight hundred square miles. But the British positions around Arras were holding strongly, while the French positions at Montdidier and on the south made progress west a dangerous movement, and the first German drive was stopped, pending the success of a new attack further north along the Lille front The fighting during the drive toward Amiens was terrific, and both the German and the allied losses were enormous.

The Germans claimed the capture of 90,000 prisoners and 1,300 guns. At some points they had advanced a distance of thirty-five miles into allied territory. Their new line now extended southwest from Arras beyond Albert to the west of Moreuil, which is about nine miles south of Amiens, and then went on west to Pierrepont and Montdidier, curving out at Noyon to the region of the Oise.

The objective of the German Army was nearly attained. The brunt of the attack had been borne by the Fifth British Army, under the command of General Gough. This army had become demoralized and separated from the Third British Army on the north, and the Sixth French Army on the south. If the German forces had been able to take advantage of the situation they would have broken through the allied line, but the German troops were by that time themselves little more than an armed mob utterly incapable of following up their advantage. The prompt military action of General Fayolle filled up the gap to the south, with three organized French divisions, while the gap to the north was occupied by an extemporized army under the command of General Carey. No troops were available to throw into the opening, when General Carey, who had been home on leave and was trying to find his headquarters, was commandeered to hold the gap at any cost.

A correspondent of the *Associated Press* gave this account of General Carey and his extraordinary army:

A disastrous-looking gap appeared in the 5th Army south of Hamel in the later stages of the opening battle. The Germans had crossed the Somme at Hamel and had a clear path for a sweep southwestward.

No troops were available to throw into the opening. A certain Brigadier-General was commissioned by Major-General Gough, commander of the 5th Army, to gather up every man he could find and to "hold the gap at any cost." The General called upon the American and Canadian engineers, cooks, chauffeurs, road workmen, anybody he could find; gave them guns, pistols, any available weapon, and rushed them into the gap in trucks, on horseback, or on mule-drawn limbers.

A large number of machine guns from a machine-gun school near by were confiscated. Only a few men, however, knew how to operate the weapons, and they had to be worked by amateurs with one "instructor" for every ten or twelve guns. The Americans did especially well in handling this arm.

For two days the detachment held the mile-and-a-half gap. At the end of the second day the commander, having gone forty-eight hours without sleep, collapsed. The situation of the detachment looked desperate.

While all were wondering what would happen next, a dusty automobile came bounding along the road from the north. It contained Brigadier-General Carey, who had been home on leave and who was trying to find his headquarters.

The general was commandeered by the detachment and he was found to be just the commander needed. He is an old South African soldier of the daredevil type. He is famous among his men for the scrapes and escapades of his schoolboy life as well as for his daring exploits in South Africa.

Carey took the detachment in hand and led it in a series of attacks and counter-attacks which left no time for sleeping and little for eating. He gave neither his men nor the enemy a rest, attacking first on the north, then in the center, then on the south—harassing the enemy unceasingly with the idea of convincing the Germans that a large force opposed them.

Whenever the Germans tried to feel him out with an attack at one point, Carey parried with a thrust somewhere else, even if it took his last available man, and threw the Germans on the defensive.

The spirit of Carey's troops was wonderful. The work they did was almost supernatural. It would have been impossible with any body of men not physical giants, but the Americans and Canadians gloried in it. They crammed every hour of the day full of fighting. It was a constantly changing battle, kaleidoscopic, free-for-all, catch-as-catch-can. The Germans gained ground. Carey and his men were back at them, hungry for more punishment. At the end of the sixth day, dog-tired and battle-worn, but still full of fight, the detachment was relieved by a fresh battalion which had come up from the rear.

With General Carey's army were about three hundred American engineers. They had been in the thick of the fighting from the beginning. At Chaunnes they had destroyed material dumps under shell-fire, and when the British forces fell back to Moreuil they laid out trench work. During the period of thirteen days the American losses among these engineers were two officers killed and three wounded, while twenty men were killed, fifty-two wounded and forty-five reported missing.

The first mention of Americans in the battle of Picardy was in the War Department's analysis of the war situation on April 7th, when it was declared that American transport sections had taken an active part in the battle, and that the American aviation section was co-operating with the British. Later reports from General Pershing indicated that two regiments of American Railway Engineers had been operating in the areas of Chauny and the Crozet Canal along with Canadian engineers, under a Canadian commander. These engineers also went under attack, had thrown down their tools and seized the weapons with which they had for some months been armed and opened fire. According to the report of a British officer, "They held on by their teeth, until the last moment inflicting terrific casualties among the enemy. Then they moved back, and waited for the Germans and repeated the performance." These were the engineers with General Carey's army.

Troops from the American training camps in France were also hurried as rapidly as possible to points where the French and British required reinforcement, and on April 29th the War Department stated, "Our own forces have taken part in the battle. American units are in the area east of Amiens. During the engagements which have raged in this area they have acquitted themselves well." Among these troops was the 42d or Rainbow Division, composed of troops from nearly every state in the union. The Americans, however, took no great part in the first great German drive. Their time was yet to come. They were still an unknown quantity, and the gallant exploits of the few who accompanied, and brigaded here and there, among the British and French troops were hardly a test of the power of the new American Army.

CHAPTER IX

America's First Attack

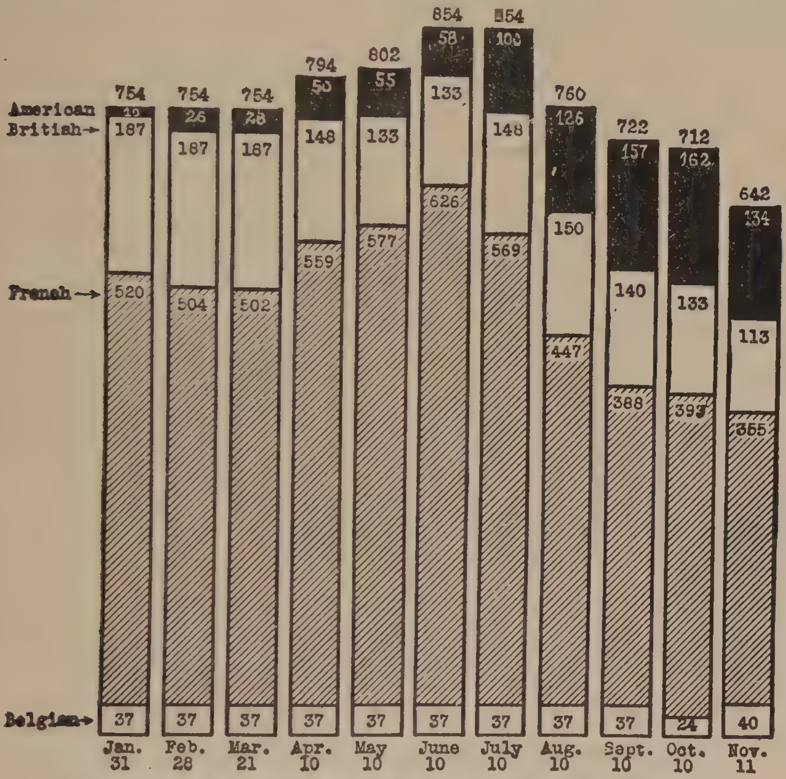
THE time had arrived for the test of the American soldier. Upon that test depended the success or failure of the plans prepared by General Foch. If the Yankee doughboy proved himself a fighter steadfast in the trenches, courageous and resourceful in attack, General Foch could count upon him as an asset in the plans he had formulated to check Von Hindenburg and Ludendorff and finally to overthrow them.

Assurance had reached the French commander that American soldiers sufficiently trained for all practical purposes were on their way in numbers great enough to tip the balance of man power upon the side of the Allies. The only remaining question was the morale of the incoming host.

The battle of Cantigny was a test of the fighting ability of the American Army. Just before it took place the American lines at Picardy had been attacked by the enemy. On May 27th, before daylight, the Germans, after a violent bombardment, with high explosives and gas, attacked our advance positions in three detachments. In two places they penetrated small portions of our front line. Shortly afterward our troops counter-attacked, expelled the Germans at all points and occupied part of the German trenches. "Heavy losses were inflicted on the enemy, and some prisoners were taken," the official report read, "Our casualties were light. In one case an American was taken prisoner, but was rescued by counter-attacks, and all of his captors were killed."

This initial encounter with the American doughboy, though brief, taught the Germans that here was an opponent infinitely more formidable than any they had faced since August, 1914, and it was to the American sectors they sent their finest troops in the subsequent months of fighting.

The battle of Cantigny followed immediately this defensive action and was fought with a dash and vigor that dismayed the enemy. It had been most carefully planned, and was a complete success. The town of Cantigny was in the center of a little salient projecting into the allied line west of Montdidier in a part held by the American 1st Division, composed of American regular troops. The plan was to destroy the salient, capturing the village of Cantigny and straightening the allied line. The attack was to be made by the 28th Infantry, a part of the 1st Division, on a front of a little more than a mile. The line was well intrenched and well guarded by machine guns, back of it were German infantry and artillery. The American infantry was supported by three French tank battalions, containing ten tanks, and a French platoon of flame throwers. Every detail of the attack was carried on with great technical accuracy.



KILOMETERS OF FRONT LINE HELD BY ARMIES OF EACH NATION

At 5.45 artillery preparation began, the infantry started at 6.45, the barrage started five minutes before this, and moved forward a hundred meters every two minutes for the first three hundred meters, then it held its fire for four minutes, and then went on again until it had finished its work. The troops followed the barrage with the French tanks on either side protected by the artillery fire upon the woods ahead, and took the town with comparative ease, capturing 250 prisoners.

Then came the German counter-attacks, first a small one against Fontaine Wood, which failed, then a heavy counter-attack against Framecourt Woods, which was broken up by American artillery, and then another attack in waves from the east which was equally unsuccessful. Similar attacks took place next day without gain.

The Americans lost 350 men and twenty-five officers of the 28th Regiment, and twenty-five men of the 1st Engineers, and with the losses from the counter-attacks and those from artillery the total loss was about six hundred men. The German losses in the actual battle were about three hundred and fifty men besides two hundred and fifty prisoners. They also lost many more in their counter-attacks.

The American success at Cantigny came at a most opportune time. On that same day the Germans were in the midst of their great victory drive, and each day was registering a new defeat of the French and British. On May 29th they had taken 25,000 prisoners, advanced ten miles, and crossed two rivers. They had captured Soissons and were threatening Rheims.

General Pershing's despatch from Cantigny was a rift in the cloud. It read as follows: "This morning in Picardy our troops attacked on a front of one and a fourth miles, advanced our lines and captured the village of Cantigny. We took two hundred prisoners and inflicted on the enemy severe losses in killed and wounded. Our casualties were relatively small. Hostile counter-attacks broke down under our fire."

The battle of Cantigny was but a small affair, but it was intensely significant. There was no longer any doubt. The

Allies had known that the American soldiers were brave. Now they knew that they had learned how to fight. General Pershing in an official report to the Secretary of War well sums up the case: "Upon the morning of May 28th the 1st Division attacked the commanding German position on its front, taking with splendid dash the town of Cantigny and all other objectives, which were organized and held steadfastly against vicious counter-attacks and galling artillery fire. Although local, this brilliant action had an electrical effect as it demonstrated our fighting qualities under extreme battle conditions, and also that the enemy's troops were not altogether invincible."

The battle of Cantigny constitutes a memorable chapter in our military history, not because of the size of the town captured but because it showed that the American Army had arrived. Accounts of the battle indicate that it was not only a success from the military point of view but it was most picturesque in itself. When the Americans went over at 6.45 o'clock the sun had just risen, and the flashes from hundreds of massed guns could be seen flaming redly through the streaky clouds, accompanied by the crash of the explosions and the steady roar that is called drumfire. Cantigny itself, center of all, was a pillar of fire and smoke. The thin lines of American troops went over the trenches, and advanced at an easy walk, following their barrage as if they were on parade. In front of them went the tanks, grotesque monsters that crushed the German machine-gun nests. Behind the lines rumbled the great guns and airplanes were whirring overhead, dropping their bombs upon the hostile trenches. With the infantry went flame throwers, which were used against the cellars, during the house-to-house fighting, and the signal corps men with carrier pigeons.

According to the plan of attack, the troops selected were sent into the trenches in two shifts, the first on the night of the 26th, and the second on Monday night, May 27th. Special trenches had been constructed for the increased number of men. Two hours before the time set for the attack they all withdrew to supporting trenches, and then, at the zero hour, 6.45, went to the front trench. They attacked in three waves, with additional detachments to clear up the Cantigny cellars. On the right and center when the advance had been made to the ultimate objective the troops intrenched themselves at that point. On the left, after carrying the German trenches they withdrew slightly to a better position, so as to connect with the whole front line. German batteries were not only pounded by artillery, but were drenched by gas. The infantry went forward, first at the rate of fifty yards per minute, and then at twenty-five yards per minute, following their barrage. They reached their final objectives at 7.20, and at 7.30 outlined their position with flares. As they advanced a heavy smoke barrage was thrown to blind the German gunners and interfere with the activity of the artillery, which for nearly half an hour was practically silenced.

In the attack, bombs, bayonets, automatic rifles, machine guns and heavy trench mortars were used, smashing the German trenches and leveling all defenses to the ground. The barbed wire had been almost entirely destroyed, and for long stretches there was no wire at all. To an observer the battlefield presented a picture of terrible grandeur. Cantigny looked like a volcano in eruption, shooting up clouds of different colors while the air was filled with spiral-shaped clouds of exploding shrapnel. The artillery gunners behind the line were stripped to their undershirts, and working at their highest speed. The batteries were spouting fire and smoke. Everything went exactly as rehearsed. A heavy-artillery officer stationed behind the lines said: "From my observation booth we could see them for a couple of minutes. They went just the way they rehearsed, just walked along slowly, keeping in fine alignment. We could see two of the three waves, and not a single man out of place, following the barrage like veterans. We could even see an individual man sometimes."

Airplanes were soaring overhead, and ambulances waiting along the road. At headquarters officers at telephones were reporting steady successes, the messages came thick and fast: "The first boche shell hit our front line at 7.06—the colonel has twenty prisoners—the right flank is sending back about a hundred—balloon reports grenade fighting west of Cantigny where our men are mopping up the trenches—two of our stretcher bearers are returning with an empty stretcher—one tank returning from Cantigny—our men are seen walking around the streets of Cantigny—flame throwers can be seen through the smoke clearing out the dugouts."

Soldiers soon began to come in with prisoners to be put in the detention pen already prepared for them. One grimy but happy soldier saluted punctiliously: "Sir, I have brought back twenty prisoners." He was triumphant. "I went with the first wave," he said. "We got to a sort of trench, and all of a sudden the boche jumped up in front of us and started to throw grenades. We went at 'em with grenades, bayonets, rifles, pistols and whatever came handy. I spitted one big fellow on my bayonet, but the bayonet stuck, so I pulled out my trench knife and went for him, but he yelled 'Kamerad,' so I grabbed his gun, and hit a third one in the head with it. There were grenades busting all around, but I could hear our fellows shouting—'Go to it, Yanks!' the same as they did all the way over No Man's Land. Pretty quick all the boches were yelling 'Kamerad,' and putting up their hands. The captain told me to herd these together and get them down quick, so they could be questioned. There's about a hundred more up in the woods cut off by the barrage."

There were hundreds of similar instances of courage and enterprise. The soldiers were happy, even the wounded were cheerful. They only wanted to know how many Germans we bagged—they only asked, "Have you got a cigarette?"

The feeling of England was well shown by the prophetic comment of the London *Evening News* upon the battle:

> Bravo! young Americans. Nothing in today's battle news from the front is more exhilarating than the account of their fight at Cantigny. It was clean-cut from beginning to end like one of their countrymen's short stories, and the short story of Cantigny is going to expand to the full length which will write the doom of the Kaiser and Kaiserism. Cantigny is one day to be repeated a thousandfold.

The German report of the fight made no mention of the fact that Cantigny had been captured by American troops. They were still anxious to have their people believe that the American troops could not fight.

CHAPTER X

AMERICA'S GLORY AT CHÂTEAU-THIERRY

A NAME blazoned in letters of gold will live forever in American history: CHÂTEAU-THIERRY. Around it will cluster records of immortal valor, deeds of heroism that will to the end of time shed luster upon the American soldiers who there checked the tide of tyranny when it was at its flood.

The German High Command selected as its second great drive of 1918 the sector along the Chemin des Dames north of the Aisne. The attack was launched May 27th, and four divisions of the British Army and the whole French line, from Rheims to a point a little east of Noyon were bent back like a huge bow. Soissons was evacuated by the French, and Paris, for the second time during the war, was threatened. French man power, tried to the utmost, was melting in the flame of battle like wax. The pressure of the enemy increased in intensity on the 30th and 31st of May, until it burst forward on a twenty-five-mile bulge reaching the river Marne between Château-Thierry and Dormans on a six-mile front.

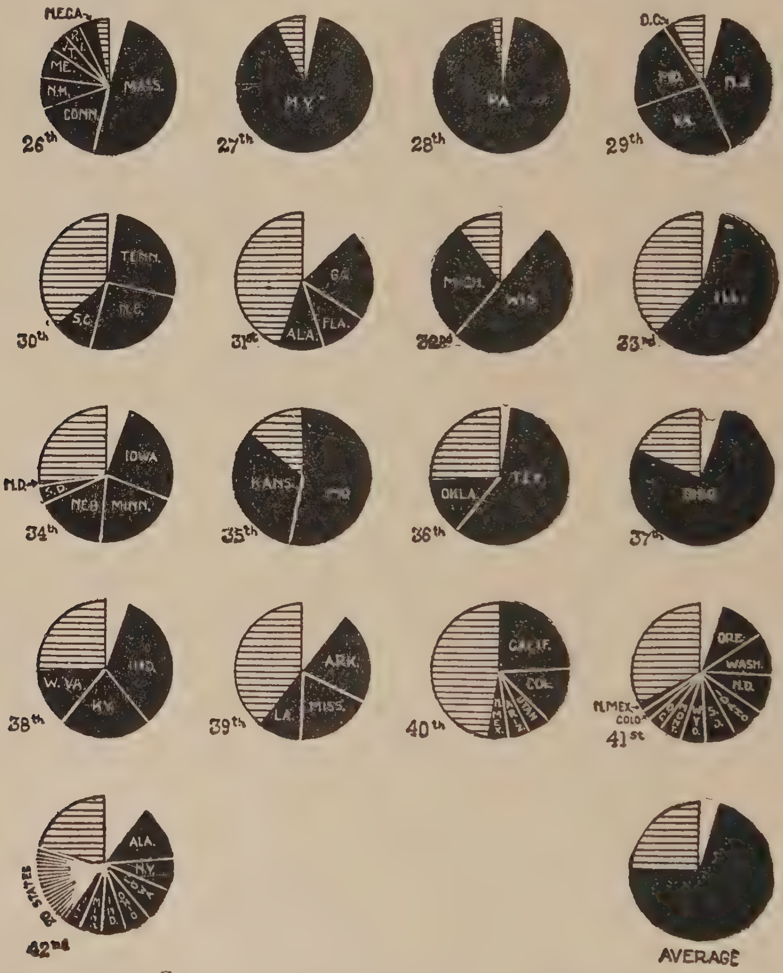
The time had come to test unto the limit the fighting power of America. If the German thrust was to be checked, this was the time. If America was to be really, this six-mile front where the crack infantry of the German Empire was surging forward afforded a battleground to test American manhood. The call for relief came to the 2d Division of the American Army, lying in billets in the Chaumont ex Vexin area. This division was composed of Regulars of the United States Army and a detachment of United States Marines. Elements of the 3d Division, a Regular Army organization, were also called into action. The orders to march reached the 2d Division Headquarters at five o'clock in the morning of May 30th. The start from its billets was made at five o'clock on the morning of the 31st. Transportation was made in motor trucks, and at daybreak of June 1st the advance guard of the 2d Division reached Montreuil.

Along the route the Americans had been hailed with cheers and tears by the women, old men and children of the French villages. They saw in the dust-covered doughboys their last desperate chance for victory. Without rest, and with only emergency rations, the Americans still presented a care-free, dauntless front as they came within the battle zone. The 9th Regiment, the first unit of the 2d Division to reach Montreuil, was sent immediately without sleep to the village of Le Thiolet to support the retreating French troops.

Because of railroad congestion eighteen of the trains on which the artillery of the 2d Division was to have been transported had been canceled and the entire equipment that was to have been placed upon these trains had been sent by road. Meanwhile the Germans had captured Château-Thierry, Vaux and the heights of Hill 204 on the north bank of the Marne. The southern suburb of Château-Thierry, lying across the Marne from the main portion of the town, was still in the hands of the Allies.

Under the direction of Major-General Bundy, whose headquarters was in a schoolroom where he sat at the teacher's desk with staff officers using the desks of little children, American ammunition dumps and artillery were moved close behind the American lines for the purpose of coming to close grips with the advancing enemy. Emergency stations for the care of the wounded were immediately established and everything made ready for America's first great battle against the Teutonic hordes.

The 3d Division, commanded by General Dickman, received a message from the French High Command to rush to the Château-Thierry sector at the same time the 2d Division received its message. Without waiting for complete mobilization and unification of the units under his command, General Dickman rushed the 3d Division with as much speed as the several units could muster. The 7th Machine Gun Battalion of the 3d Division, a completely motorized unit, earned the glory of first engaging the enemy in this historic battle. It reported first to the French at Conde-en-Bric, and from there was sent with all possible haste to Thierry. Two companies of the 7th Battalion rode immediately to the battle line and took position with the French Colonials at the crossing of the Marne where the Germans were fiercely fighting in an effort to dislodge the allied forces. Unit by unit, the rest of the 3d Division came up to be brigaded with French troops, and went into battle without any training in French trenches. The division had not even been assembled as an organization since it left America. It was a number of days after the



Composition of National Guard Divisions.

HAND-TO-HAND FIGHTING IN THE GREAT DRIVE

In the war of movement that followed the breaking of the Hindenburg line events such as this were frequent until the Germans learned to dread the Yankee bayonets and keep beyond their reach.

U. S. Official Photograph.

COMBAT FORMATION

114th Infantry, 29th Division advancing to attack in St. Leger Woods, France, August 23, 1918.

U. S. Official Photograph

WHERE THE CROWN PRINCE WAITED

American officers using observation instruments left behind by the Germans in their hasty retreat from the Marne. The building was used by the former German heir at Montfaucon, near Verdun.

arrival of the infantry on the battlefront before the artillery of the 3d Division came into action.

And now the 2d Division after two days in a support position on a twelve-mile front behind the French lines was ready for its baptism of blood. On the night of the 3d of June and the morning of the 4th of June, the French troops were removed from the front line and the regulars and marines of the 2d Division were face to face with the enemy along the twelve-mile front of Germany's great battle wedge.

Germany's great moment had come. If that wedge could be driven across the Marne, and the Paris road at Le Thiolet could be opened to the German army, the stroke that would end the war might be delivered. Into the apex of that German wedge were placed two crack divisions of the German Army, facing the 2d Division of Americans. The twelve-mile front included Belleau Wood and the village of Bouresches. The battle that opened on the morning of June 4th was a mighty duel between two opposing military schools, the German school of cold, scientific precision with officers moving their units like pawns in a chess game; the American school of battle with units obeying as implicitly as did the Germans, but with an added initiative and resourcefulness of individuals in open fighting, an initiative and resourcefulness that was paralleled in the World War only by Canadians and Australians.

The Germans held both the Belleau Woods and Bouresches village. These positions afforded the enemy cover both for murderous machine-gun nests and for the launching of sudden attacks. In the meantime the French and the motorized 7th Machine Gun Battalion of the 3d Division had held the crossing against the German horde. Now the task of the 2d Division was to clear both Belleau Woods and Bouresches village of the enemy. Until that had been done Château-Thierry and the Paris road were in danger. Germans stationed on the heights of Hill 204 were enabled to discern every movement of the Americans and sometimes to diagnose in advance and to anticipate what the Americans would do. In addition to this tremendous advantage, German airplanes scouted low over American lines, bombed our positions and spotted for their own artillery.

The first attack of the decisive battle came from the Germans. They poured out of Belleau Wood in force and for the first time encountered the direct rifle fire of crack American marksmen. Coolly as though at target practice the marines of the 4th Brigade adjusted their sights, each doughboy picking his man in the advancing line of gray-green uniforms. Methodically as though they were in a training sector the machine-gun crews of the 2d Division sighted their pieces and fed their guns while whole rows of Germans fell like wheat before the reaper. It was marksmanship beyond praise, the coolness that comes from dauntless courage. Against the blasting fire of the marines the German advance was helpless. Its man power shriveled like dry leaves in a forest fire. Here and there under furious efforts of German officers lines were reformed only to be mowed down mercilessly as they came staggering forward.

Major-General Harbord commanding the Marine Brigade was well content with the day's work when the Germans withdrew their shattered forces behind their defenses leaving the dead and wounded in windrows. General Harbord had been chief of staff under General Pershing before assuming his command. He was later succeeded as chief of staff by Major-General James W. McAndrew. A colonel of marines pinned upon the collar of Major-General Harbord's tunic the eagle, globe and anchor, the insignia of the marines, and no decoration received by General Harbord was more prized than this.

In the meantime the 3d Brigade of the 2d Division, under Brigadier-General Lewis, was in action on the south side of the road to Paris.

The Marine Brigade was called into action for attack on the morning of the 6th. The jump-off was made at dawn, in conjunction with French forces on the left of the brigade. The operation was for the purpose of straightening the allied line toward Torcy. The operation was entirely successful, the marines dashing through shell and machine-gun fire with great spirit and achieving their objectives long before noon.

At length the way was clear for the advance upon Belleau Wood and Bouresches. The order came to attack at two o'clock on the afternoon of the same day, June 6th. The battle was to be in two phases, first the capture of Belleau Wood, second the taking of Bouresches. The artillery opened the action with a raking fire concentrated on Belleau. At a signal the curtain lifted and was diverted to Bouresches. Immediately upon its lifting, the marines tore into the dark shades and thick tangle of Belleau.

There was a brief, bloody struggle for German machine-gun positions on the outskirts of the wood. These were soon taken and then the German machine-gun nests in the rocky fastnesses of Belleau came into play. Every foot of ground in the forest was swept by these hidden miniature fortresses. The spaces about which an attack must come had been carefully laid out in checkerboard pattern by the defenders. None of the nests interfered with the zone of operation of any other defense. It was out of the question for the attackers to take any nest in flank. Hidden guns protected every nest. There was only one way to destroy these defenses; by rifle fire and bayonet assault. As coolly as when they were behind their own defenses, the Yankee skirmishers took advantage of every rock and picked off every machine gunner who presented himself for a second to view. When opportunity presented itself the doughboys rushed in sudden bayonet charges, using the cold steel skilfully and terribly. Steadily, remorselessly the work went forward but at a terrible cost. Out of the dark ravine trickled blood-stained processions bearing the dead and the dying of the marines. Stokes mortars and supplies of munitions were rushed into the wood in parallel processions.

With the coming of nightfall, there was a lull in the action. The marines had made good their foothold in the wood. Some of the ground that had been captured was yielded to the enemy because it afforded no cover for our troops. Emergency rations taken from both American and German dead were eaten by the survivors and the water from the canteens of the dead served to allay the parching, acrid battle thirst.

While the battle for Belleau was going forward furiously the attack upon Bouresches village was launched. Here, because of the openness of the ground, the American artillery preparation was more thorough and effective. When the attack came the marines literally swept all opposition before them. The German defenders who barricaded themselves in cellars were surrounded and many were taken prisoner. It was a house-to-house operation, with which the marines traditionally were familiar. Throughout this action there came co-operation from the 23d Regiment of Regular Infantry. These doughboys, envious of the marines, speedily overran their objective. Like the marines in Belleau Woods they were recalled to an entrenched position during the night of June 6th. By dawn of the morning of June 7th, the entire village of Bouresches was in the possession of the marines and the rocky defiles of Belleau Wood made debatable ground. Gas attacks by Germans upon Bouresches and Belleau Wood only served to intensify the determination of the Americans to hold their positions at all costs.

The second attack upon Belleau Wood commenced at five o'clock on the morning of June 11th. Artillery fire of greater concentration and intensity than that which had paved the way for the first attack, preceded the assault. Valuable lessons had been learned in the first attack. Each nest of German machine guns was treated as a separate problem. Crossfire from American rifles and machine guns and a looping machine-gun barrage isolated these positions. Upon a signal the Americans rushed and carried the positions with the bayonet. Usually they found the defenders hiding behind trees or lying in dog-holes they had hastily dug. There was no going back. Yard by yard the marines went forward. A regiment from the 3d Division was sent into the brigade to be "blooded." Stubbornly the Germans resisted, and steadily the Americans pressed forward.

A French officer, believing that a different disposition of the troops should be made, suggested that the 2d Division be retired to another point. Major-General Omar Bundy, then commanding, respectfully said to the Frenchman:

"I cannot retreat. They do not know the meaning of the word!"

On June 21st and 22d units of the 3d Division attempted

Painted by Fred E. Schoonover—© *C. P. Co., 1918.*

THE FIRST VICTORY OF THE AMERICAN TROOPS

Three battalions of American Infantry—1st Division—among the first to arrive in France, early in the morning of May 28, 1918, attacked and captured the village of Cantigny, then a German stronghold. This was the doughboys' "baptism of blood."

to reduce some very strong German positions in the wood. In the twilight of the forest it was almost impossible to differentiate friend from foe. To add to the confusion it was said that German machine gunners dressed themselves in the khaki uniforms of dead Americans. Finally the Germans were pushed back to the verge of the wood. Marine units that had been in Bouresches under shell and gas attacks were called back into Belleau Wood and the regiment of the 3d Division was recalled. Like wolves in sight of their prey the marines leaped forward in the last assault. A short, bloody struggle and Belleau was cleared forever of the enemy. The marines had gone through.

While the marines were capturing Belleau and Bouresches, the 3d Brigade of the 2d Division was making ready for an attack upon Vaux. These regulars went about their job with characteristic courage. Every officer and every man knew his lesson in advance. The Germans knew almost to the minute when the attack was to be made and anticipated the assault by artillery fire of the utmost intensity upon the American positions. This continued for fifteen hours. Working in liaison with the French the attack was made on July 1st. The French directed their assault on Hill 204 while the regulars paid attention solely to Vaux.

So fierce and precise was the attack that within five minutes after they burst over the top, the regulars were in the outskirts of Vaux. The entire village was mapped and every cellar spotted in advance. American artillery cleared the way and the capture of the village was accomplished without incident. When evening of July 1st faded into night all of the American objectives had been taken; the German wedge had been blunted; the German drive had been checked. The road to Paris was in the indisputable possession of the Allies, and once more the banks of the Marne had proved a stone wall of defense against the Germans.

A TRIBUTE TO THE MARINES

For purposes of historical record the tribute paid by Secretary of the Navy Josephus Daniels to the marines of the 2d Division is worthy of quotation:

"Memorial Day shall henceforth have a greater, deeper significance for America, for it was on that day, May 30, 1918, that our country really received its first call to battle—the battle in which American troops had the honor of stopping the German drive on Paris, throwing back the Prussian hordes in attack after attack, and beginning the retreat which lasted until imperial Germany was beaten to its knees and its emissaries appealing for an armistice under the flag of truce. And to the United States Marines, fighting side by side with equally brave and equally courageous men in the American Army, to that faithful sea and land force of the navy, fell the honor of taking over the lines where the blow of the Prussian would strike the hardest, the line that was nearest Paris, and where, should a breach occur, all would be lost.

"The world knows today that the United States Marines held that line; that they blocked the advance that was rolling on toward Paris at the rate of six or seven miles a day; that they met the attack in American fashion and with American heroism; that marines and soldiers of the American Army threw back the crack guard division of Germany, broke their advance, and then, attacking, drove them back in the beginning of a retreat that was not to end until the "cease firing" signal sounded for the end of the world's greatest war.

"Having reached their destination early on the morning of June 2d, they disembarked stiff and tired after a journey of more than seventy-two miles, but as they formed their lines and marched onward in the direction of the line they were to hold, they were determined and cheerful. That evening the first field message from the 4th Brigade to Major-General Omar Bundy, commanding the 2d Division, went forward:

> "Second Battalion, 6th Marines, in line from Le Thiolet through Clarembauts Woods to Triangle to Lucy. Instructed to hold line. First Battalion, 6th Marines, going into line from Lucy through Hill 142. Third Battalion in support at La Voie du Chatel, which is also the post command of the 6th Marines. Sixth Machine Gun Battalion distributed at line.

"Meanwhile the 5th Regiment was moving into line, machine guns were advancing, and the artillery taking its position. That night the men and officers of the marines slept in the open, many of them in a field that was green with unharvested wheat, awaiting the time when they should be summoned to battle. The next day at 5 o'clock the afternoon of June 2d, began the battle of Château-Thierry, with the Americans holding the line against the most vicious wedge of the German advance.

"The advance of the Germans was across a wheat field, driving at Hill 165 and advancing in smooth columns. The United States Marines, trained to keen observation on the rifle range, nearly every one of them wearing a marksman's medal or, better, that of the sharpshooter or expert rifleman, did not wait for those gray-clad hordes to advance nearer.

"Calmly they set their sights and aimed with the same precision that they had shown upon the rifle ranges at Paris Island, Mare Island and Quantico. Incessantly their rifles cracked, and with their fire came the support of the artillery. The machine-gun fire, incessant also, began to make its inroads upon the advancing forces. Closer and closer the shrapnel burst to its targets. Caught in a seething wave of machine-gun fire of scattering shrapnel, or accurate rifle fire, the Germans found themselves in a position in which further advance could only mean absolute suicide. The lines hesitated. They stopped. They broke for cover, while the marines raked the woods and ravines in which they had taken refuge with machine gun and rifle to prevent their making another attempt to advance by infiltrating through.

"Above, a French airplane was checking up on the artillery fire. By the fact that the men should deliberately set their sights, adjust their range, and then fire deliberately at an advancing foe, each men picking his target, instead of firing merely in the direction of the enemy, the aviator signaled below 'Bravo!' In the rear that word was echoed again and again. The German drive on Paris had been stopped.

"For the next few days the fighting took on the character of pushing forth outposts and determining the strength of the enemy. Now, the fighting had changed. The Germans, mystified that they should have run against a stone wall of defense just when they believed that their advance would be easiest, had halted, amazed; then prepared to defend the positions they had won with all the stubbornness possible. In the black recesses of Belleau Wood the Germans had established nest after nest of machine guns. There in the jungle of matted underbrush, of vines, of heavy foliage, they had placed themselves in positions they believed impregnable. And this meant that unless they could be routed, unless they could be thrown back, the breaking of the attack of June 2d would mean nothing. There would come another drive and another. The battle of Château-Thierry was therefore not won and could not be won until Belleau Wood had been cleared of the enemy.

"It was on June 6th that the attack of the American troops began against that wood and its adjacent surroundings, with the wood itself and the towns of Torcy and Bouresches forming the objectives. At five o'clock the attack came, and there began the tremendous sacrifices which the marine corps gladly suffered that the German fighters might be thrown back.

"The marines fought strictly according to American methods—a rush, a halt, a rush again, in four-wave formation, the rear waves taking over the work of those who had fallen before them, passing over the bodies of their dead comrades and plunging ahead, until they, too, should be torn to bits. But behind those waves were more waves, and the attack went on.

" 'Men fell like flies,' the expression is that of an officer writing from the field. Companies that had entered the battle 250 strong dwindled to fifty and sixty, with a sergeant in command; but the attack did not falter. At 9.45 o'clock that night Bouresches was taken by Lieutenant James F. Robertson and twenty-odd men of his platoon; these soon were joined by two reinforcing platoons. Then came the enemy counter-attacks, but the marines held.

"In Belleau Wood the fighting had been literally from tree to tree, stronghold to stronghold; and it was a fight which must last for weeks before its accomplishment in victory. Belleau Wood was a jungle, its every rocky formation containing a German machine-gun nest, almost impossible to reach by artillery or grenade fire. There was only one way to wipe out these nests—by the bayonet. And by this method were they wiped out, for United States marines, bare chested, shouting their battle cry of 'E-e-e-e-e y-a-a-h-h yip!' charged straight into the murderous fire from those guns, and won!

"Out of the number that charged, in more than one instance, only one would reach the stronghold. There, with his bayonet as his only weapon, he would either kill or capture the defenders of the nest, and then swinging the gun about in its position turn it against the remaining German positions in the forest. Such was the character of the fighting in Belleau Wood; fighting which continued until July 6th, when, after a short relief, the invincible Americans finally were taken back to the rest billet for recuperation.

"In all the history of the marine corps there is no such battle as that one in Belleau Wood. Fighting day and night without relief, without sleep, often without water, and for days without hot rations, the marines met and defeated the best divisions that Germany could throw into the line.

"The heroism and doggedness of that battle are unparalleled. Time after time officers seeing their lines cut to pieces, seeing their men so dog-tired that they even fell asleep under shellfire, hearing their wounded calling for the water they were unable to supply, seeing men fight on after they had been wounded and until they dropped unconscious; time after time officers seeing these things, believing that the very limit of human endurance had been reached, would send back messages to their post command that their men were exhausted. But in answer to this would come the word that the line must hold, and, if possible, those lines must attack. And the lines obeyed. Without water, without food, without rest, they went forward—and forward every time to victory. Companies had been so torn and lacerated by losses that they were hardly platoons, but they held their lines and advanced them. In more than one case companies lost every officer, leaving a sergeant and sometimes a corporal to command, and the advance continued.

"After thirteen days in this inferno of fire a captured German officer told with his dying breath of a fresh division of Germans that was about to be thrown into the battle to attempt to wrest from the marines that part of the wood they had gained. The marines, who for days had been fighting only on their sheer nerves, who had been worn out from nights of sleeplessness, from lack of rations, from terrific shell and machine-gun fire, straightened their lines and prepared for the attack. It came—as the dying German officer had predicted.

"At two o'clock on the morning of June 13th it was launched by the Germans along the whole front. Without regard for men, the enemy hurled his forces against Bouresches and the Bois de Belleau, and sought to win back what had been taken from Germany by the Americans. The orders were that these positions must be taken at all costs; that the utmost losses in men must be endured that the Bois de Belleau and Bouresches might fall again into German hands. But the depleted lines of the marines held; the men who had fought on their nerve alone for days once more showed the mettle of which they were made. With their backs to the trees and boulders of the Bois de Belleau, with their sole shelter the scattered ruins of Bouresches, the thinning lines of the marines repelled the attack and crashed back the new division which had sought to wrest the position from them.

"And so it went. Day after day, night after night, while time after time messages like the following traveled to the post command:

> "Losses heavy. Difficult to get runners through. Some have never returned. Morale excellent, but troops about all in. Men exhausted.

"Exhausted, but holding on. And they continued to hold on in spite of every difficulty. Advancing their lines slowly day by day, the marines finally prepared their positions to such an extent that the last rush for the possession of the wood could be made. Then, on June 24th, following a tremendous barrage, the struggle began.

"The barrage literally tore the woods to pieces, but even its immensity could not wipe out all the nest that remained, the emplacements that were behind almost every clump of bushes, every jagged, rough group of boulders. But those that remained were wiped out by the American method of the rush and the bayonet, and in the days that followed every foot of Belleau Wood was cleared of the enemy and held by the frayed lines of the Americans.

"It was, therefore, with the feeling of work well done that the depleted lines of the marines were relieved in July, that they might be filled with replacements and made ready for a grand offensive in the vicinity of Soissons, July 18th. And in recognition of their sacrifice and bravery this praise was forthcoming from the French:

"Army Headquarters, June 30, 1918.

"In view of the brilliant conduct of the Fourth Brigade of the Second United States Division, which in a spirited fight took Bouresches and the important strong point of Bois de Belleau, stubbornly defended by a large enemy force, the General commanding the Sixth Army orders that henceforth, in all official papers, the Bois de Belleau shall be named 'Bois de la Brigade de Marine.

"DIVISION GENERAL DEGOUTTE,
"*Commanding Sixth Army.*"

An official German Army report was captured July 7th on an officer taken in the Marne region. The document embodied a careful estimate by the Germans of American morale.

Intelligence Officer of the Supreme Command at Army Headquarters, No. 7, J. No. 3,528, Army Headquarters, June 17, 1917.

Second American Infantry Division. Examination of prisoners from the 5th, 6th, 9th and 23d Regiments captured from June 5th to 14th in the Bouresches sector. The prisoners were not informed of the purpose of the attacks. The orders for the attacks on Belleau Wood were made known only a few hours before the attacks took place.

The 2d American Division may be classified as a very good division perhaps even as assault troops. The various attacks on Belleau Wood were carried out with dash and recklessness. The moral effect of our firearms did not materially check the advance of the infantry. The nerves of the Americans are still unshaken. The individual soldiers are very good. They are healthy, vigorous and physically well developed men of ages ranging from 18 to 28, who at present lack only necessary training to make them redoubtable opponents. The troops are fresh and full of straightforward confidence. A remark of one of the prisoners is indicative of their spirit—"We kill or get killed."

In both attacks on Belleau Wood, which were carried out by one or two battalions, the following method of attack was adopted: Three or four lines of skirmishers at about thirty to fifty paces distance: rather close behind these isolated assault parties in platoon column; abundant equipment of automatic rifles and hand grenades. The assault parties carried forward machine guns and were ordered to penetrate the German position at a weak point, to swing laterally, and to attack the strong points from the rear.

Particulars on the American position: No details are available. The prisoners are hardly able to state where they were in position. According to their statements, it may be assumed that the front line consists only of rifle pits one meter deep, up to the present not provided with wire entanglements. The organization of the positions in rear is unknown.

Morale: The prisoners in general make an alert and pleasing impression. Regarding military matters, however, they do not show the slightest interest. Their superiors keep them purposely without knowledge of military subjects. For example, most of them have never seen a map. They are no longer able to describe the villages and roads through which they marched. Their ideas on the organization of their unit is entirely confused. For example, one of them claimed that his brigade has six regiments, his division twenty-four. They still regard the war from the point of view of the "big brother" who comes to help his hard pressed brethren and is, therefore, welcomed everywhere. A certain moral background is not lacking. The majority of the prisoners simply took as a matter of course that they have come to Europe in order to defend their country.

Only a few of the troops are of pure American origin; the majority is of German, Dutch, and Italian parentage, but these semi-Americans, almost all of whom were born in America and never have been in Europe fully feel themselves to be true-born sons of their country.

(Signed) Von Berg,
Lieutenant and Intelligence Officer.

Painted by Fred E. Schoonover—© *C. P. Co., 1919.*

OUR FAMOUS "LOST BATTALION" IN ARGONNE FOREST

Seven hundred of our boys were surrounded by thousands of Huns. For thirty-six hours they had had no food. Death seemed inevitable. In answer to the enemy's messenger with an offer to spare them if they would surrender, Lieutenant-Colonel Charles Whittlesey roared his historic "Go to Hell!"—which was at once "refusal, malediction and prophecy."

CHAPTER XI

AMERICA THE DECIDING FACTOR

AMERICA was now ready to be tested as a factor in the war. Men and munitions poured in an endless chain of ships across the ocean. Some little preliminary training was given to troops before they were put into action, and while this training was going forward the older divisions were taken out of the training areas and put into the line. On June 30th, American troops in France in all departments of service numbered 1,019,115.

Like an electric current the news had sped through the entire allied front that the Americans had proved masters of the Germans at Château-Thierry, Belleau Wood, Bouresches and Cantigny. Along the lines of transportation from Brest American troops were pouring in streams of brown, virile, confident young manhood. New life surged through the arteries of the allied forces. For the first time they felt that the day of deliverance from the German menace was at hand. They had made a good fight against overwhelming odds. They had held the line against all that German scientific efficiency could hurl against them. Poison gas, airplanes, long-range guns, machine-gun nests, hammer strokes of German artillery and infantry against weak spots—all these had been endured. Now America vibrant with wealth, youth and determination had come like a fresh, well-trained gladiator ready to strike the deciding blow against the formidable foe.

Following closely upon the spirited defence at Château-Thierry and the capture of Belleau Wood and Bouresches came the attack on Vaux and communicating positions along the German lines to Hill 204. This action was commenced and completed on July 1st, by the regular soldiers of the 2d Division included in the 3d Brigade.

While the marines of the 2d Division had been earning immortal laurels in Belleau Wood and Bouresches, the regulars of the 3d Brigade had been lying under almost constant shellfire. Little action had come to them. Now and then a German raiding party came across No Man's Land to encounter death and defeat. Once in a while the regulars made reprisal raids but the German lines remained intact. The regulars, envious of the marines, were eager for action. Hungrily they looked in the direction of Vaux with its formidable trench system and its concentration of artillery and machine guns.

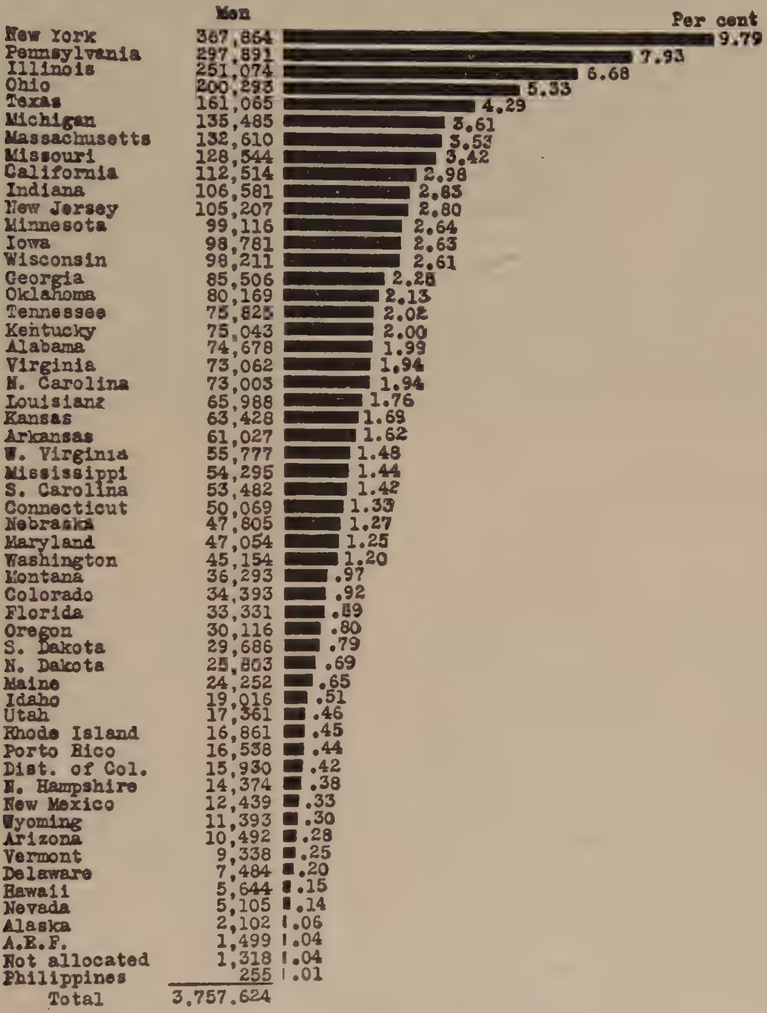
Vaux was larger than Bouresches and more scientifically fortified. Every ruined house was a center for German troops. From the cellars ran communication trenches; concrete embankments reinforced the substantial stone walls upon which the thrifty French had erected their homes.

It was upon these cellars that the intelligence service of the 2d Division concentrated its attention. Every excavation was located and carefully plotted upon maps which went to both artillery and infantry headquarters. Balloons and airplanes were the eyes of the intelligence service.

Slowly and with maddening deliberation the heavy artillery of the Americans bracketed their objectives until they finally came upon the target of each cellar in Vaux. The hits were registered, sights were adjusted and everything was made ready for the prelude to the assault.

The Germans upon their side were fully aware of the 3d Brigade's intentions. They sensed the time selected for the attack, and sought to prevent it. Their method was to pour into the 3d Brigade's position an intense shellfire for the purpose of destroying the morale of the Americans. For fifteen hours this terrific bombardment of the American trenches continued. The doughboys dug themselves in, took what toll of death the shells demanded with a stoicism that marked them as heroes, and waited for the zero hour.

It came at dawn on the morning of July 1st. Every officer, every gunner, every infantryman was ready. More than that, every one knew exactly the part he was to play in the grand assault. Big guns increased the rain of heavy projectiles into the cellars of Vaux. Guns that were to protect the infantry laid a barrage that was a real curtain of death through which no enemy might come. In the trenches, officers with maps showing the objective of each company and the location of every cellar, passed among the waiting regulars and marked with satisfaction the readiness of each man for the charge. At a signal the brigade snapped off behind the barrage.



Soldiers Furnished by Each State

On the right of the regulars the French were ready and moved forward in liaison with our men. Their objective was

Hill 204 which commanded Château-Thierry. Smoothly and with the efficiency of a gigantic reaper the assault swept forward. German machine-gun nests were encountered but the Americans now knew the technique of nest destruction. Each of these deadly little forts was encircled and the Germans who failed to surrender promptly were finished by unerring rifle fire and automatics used at short range.

So well did our barrage open and so keen was the follow of the regulars that within five minutes after the jump-off, the men of the 3d Brigade were in the outskirts of Vaux. Thereafter it became merely a matter of encircling and overrunning the fortified cellars. More than five hundred prisoners were taken and the Germans left heaps of dead within the village. The operation was one of the quickest and most successful of the war. Its preparation had been careful. To the Germans as well as to the Allies the victory was a demonstration in miniature of what was to come later in the Argonne. American determination and dash were no longer matters in doubt. The men of the 2d Division, both regulars and marines, had given a taste of their quality. The doom of the German Army had been foreshadowed in the action that began when the motorized machine-gun battalion of the 3d Division held the bridgehead at Château-Thierry and ended when the regulars of the 2d Division captured Vaux.

With the great German drive halted at the Marne the high command of the Teutonic alliance was confronted with the immediate necessity for widening the salient that had been made at the Marne. They found that the 2d and 3d Divisions had blocked their progress over the road to Paris via Château-Thierry. In this emergency they decided to attack along the western side of the Marne salient with the idea of joining that wedge with the salient at Montdidier. The attempt was made behind intensive artillery preparation on the 9th of June. This time, however, both the British and French were active. The Germans made some headway but at terrific cost. The effort continued for several weeks but the strategic object of combining the salients was a flat failure.

Held upon the western side the German High Command now resolved upon a terrific assault on the eastern face of the

U. S. Official Photograph.

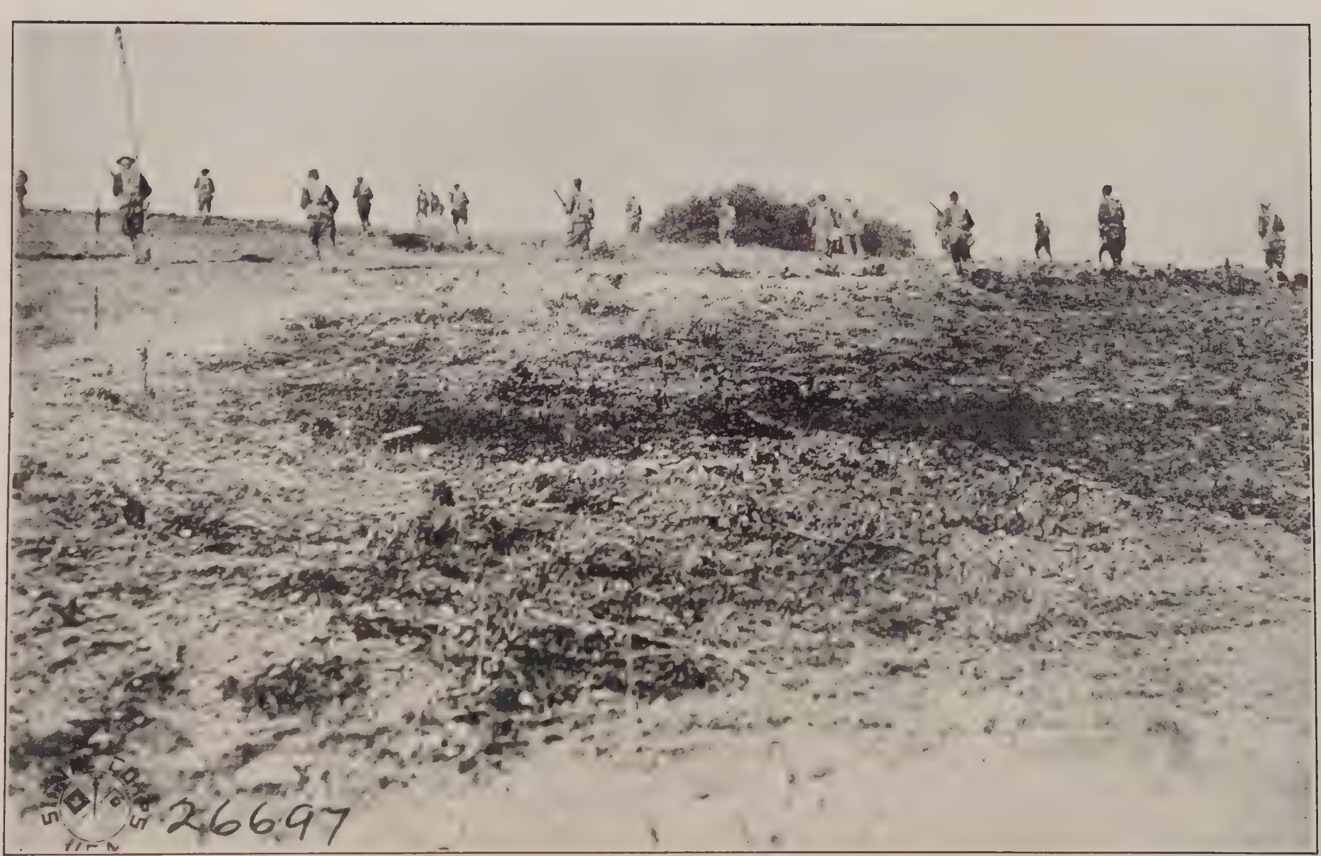
INSPECTING PARTS OF COLT'S REVOLVERS

Much of the perfection of our small arms was due to the painstaking care and accuracy of these women inspectors.

U. S. Official Photograph.

FILLING SHELLS WITH HIGH EXPLOSIVE

Women played a prominent part in the production of munitions for the armies in France.



U. S. Official Photograph

AN INFANTRY CHARGE

Doughboys of the 64th Regiment, 32d Division, advancing under fire near Romagne-Sous-Montfaucon, Meuse, October 18, 1918.

Marne salient. This thrust was directed against the French Army commanded by General Gouraud. They planned to make this attack with a frontal thrust across the Marne in the Château-Thierry sector.

The German plan was that of Ludendorff, and to it Von Hindenburg gave his approval. The strategy, like that of the thrust at Amiens, was to separate the French and American forces from the armies of the British. The German plan was to roll back the French and Americans southward and to pin the British in the territory north of the Somme. The German Crown Prince was nominally in command of this last great drive but Ludendorff pulled the strings of battle. It was estimated that forty-seven divisions were massed on the great Marne salient during this titanic operation.

The maneuver was a desperate one but the case of the Germans required desperate measures. According to French estimates the losses of the German Army since the first drive of the year against Amiens up to the moment of commencing the latest Marne thrust, were between 700,000 and 1,000,000 men. With the inrush of American troops the scale of man-power had tipped to the side of the Allies. American shells had given to the Allies an even greater preponderance in munitions.

Von Hindenburg and Ludendorff believed that the Americans could not be thrown into the line to the extent of their man-power because they had not been sufficiently trained in the war zone. They contended that the training in American camps was insufficient to prepare them for actual offensive and defensive work in the field. If that supposition were true, Foch had still no sufficient reserves to withstand a sudden onslaught.

But the supposition was far afield. The Americans in France were far in excess of the German estimate and their training was far better than the German High Command supposed. General March, chief of the General Staff, announced that on July 1st, the 1st American Army Corps was organized, and on July 13th came the news that General Pershing had enough men and material to form three complete army corps.

Each army corps numbered from 225,000 to 250,000 men, so that approximately 700,000 Americans were actually on the battlefront. The three corps were designated the 1st, 2d and 3d. The 1st was composed entirely of veteran troops including the 1st and 2d Divisions of regulars and the Marine Corps Brigade which had distinguished itself in the Château-Thierry-Soissons sector. The complete composition of the three corps as given out by General March, was as follows:

FIRST ARMY CORPS

Temporarily commanded by Major-General Hunter Liggett.

1st (Regular Army) Division, commanded by Major-General Robert L. Bullard.

2d (Regular Army) Division, commanded by Major-General Omar Bundy, including marines.

26th (National Guard) Division, commanded by Major-General Clarence R. Edwards, composed of New England troops, many of whom had seen service on the Mexican border. This was the first national guard division sent to France.

42d (National Guard) Division, commanded by Major-General Charles T. Menoher, known as the Rainbow Division.

41st (National Guard) Division, commanded originally by Major-General Hunter Liggett, composed of troops from the Pacific Coast States and known as the Sunset Division.

32d (National Guard) Division, commanded by Major-General William G. Haan, composed of troops from Michigan and Wisconsin.

SECOND ARMY CORPS

77th (National Army) Division, commanded by Major-General George B. Duncon, composed of New York troops. This was the first national army division sent to France and to the front.

35th (National Guard) Division, commanded by Major-General W. M. Wright, composed of troops from Kansas and Missouri.

82d (National Army) Division, commanded by Major-General William P. Burnham, composed of troops from Alabama, Georgia and Tennessee.

30th (National Guard) Division, commanded by Major-General George W. Reid, composed of troops from Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina and the District of Columbia.

28th (National Guard) Division, commanded by Major-General Charles H. Muir, composed of troops from Pennsylvania.

4th (Regular Army) Division, commanded by Major-General George H. Cameron.

THIRD ARMY CORPS

3d (Regular Army) Division, commanded by Major-General Joseph T. Dickman.

5th (Regular Army) Division, commanded by Major-General John E. McMahon.

78th (National Army) Division, commanded by Major-General J. N. McRae, composed of troops from Delaware and New York.

80th (National Army) Division, commanded by Major-General Adalbert Cronkhite, composed of troops from Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia.

33d (National Guard) Division, commanded by Major-General George Bell, composed of troops from Illinois.

27th (National Guard) Division, commanded by Major-General John F. O'Ryan, composed of troops from New York.

The total number of officers and men in the army about the middle of July was approximately 2,200,000, distributed as follows:

At the front with General Pershing	700,000
Training in France and England, or en route to Europe	400,000
Training in the United States and stationed at army posts	1,100,000
Total	2,200,000

The Germans launched their final attack in the Marne salient on July 15th. It was a simultaneous effort directed against Gouraud with the cutting of the French lines at Châlons and Epernay in the Champagne region as an objective. The other phase of the attack was as has been said, directed against the Marne salient.

But Gouraud was wide awake and waiting. By a miracle of intelligent efficiency the one-armed hero knew exactly the minute when the German assault would be launched. Notwithstanding the utmost secrecy with which the German artillery and infantry were made ready, and massed against Gouraud's front the French were prepared with a preponderance of men and munitions. With Gouraud was the spectacular 42d (Rainbow) Division of Americans.

At the same time the attack against Gouraud was launched, the Germans smashed in the direction of Dormans and Château-Thierry. Here the Americans were massed in force. Pershing was as well informed and as ready as was Gouraud. The gigantic German effort, like a huge tidal wave, advanced behind an artillery barrage, skillfully laid and of intense fury. To the dismay of the German High Command there came an instant reply from the French and Americans. The artillery answer completely destroyed the effect of the German fire. Virtually every German gun was located and every mass of German infantry that swept forward behind the German barrage encountered a withering blast of machine gun and artillery fire.

The experience was unprecedented in the history of the German troops. They faltered, wavered, dug themselves in, and retreated. Here and there small advances were made, but the effort was checked in its tracks. The plans of Ludendorff, Von Hindenburg and the Crown Prince were dashed to fragments and the back of Germany's last great offensive was broken.

CHAPTER XII

AMERICA'S COUNTER-OFFENSIVE

THE Germans were held in their tracks on the Marne-Aisne drive. There wasn't the slightest doubt about that. Two great objectives lay immediately before the Germans; Soissons and Rheims. Before Rheims the enemy's advance was broken off as a lance is splintered when it encounters a stone wall. In other directions the Germans encountered the same dauntless spirit. Here for the first time the citizen soldiers of the American Republic received their baptism of fire in the Great War. L and M Companies of the 109th, and B and C Companies of the 110th Regiments of the 28th Pennsylvania National Guard Division were in the very forefront of the allied defense south of Dormans. With them in the line of the Marne from Château-Thierry to Dormans were the 3d Division of American regulars and the 125th Division of French poilus. The Pennsylvania guardsmen had been prepared for battle by being brigaded with the British for two weeks. The four companies named with a combined strength of a thousand men were put into the front line with French units separating them.

The tremendous German barrage preceding the enemy's advance commenced at midnight of July 14th. German shells poured like hailstones into all the front-line trenches of the Allies. Back of it came the infantry in a desperate effort to break through. Held along most of the line, the Germans managed to swing their pontoons across the Marne at Dormans and to send their hosts across and down the south bank at Château-Thierry.

A terrific attack was immediately launched upon the 125th French Division which included the American National Guard units. More experienced and prudent in battle, the French units retreated in good order, leaving the four Pennsylvania companies isolated to hold the front line. As one man the gallant one thousand fought to hold back the oncoming tide of invasion. Outnumbered fifty to one with no supports and with no lines of communication for food or munitions four companies stood like rocks in the path of the German host. Each little band of two hundred and fifty men acting individually and without communication with any other group determined to fight it out on that line, let come what may. When that bloody first battle of American militia in the World War was done, less than four hundred of the thousand came back. Those who remained were for the most part either wounded or sustained severe shell-shock.

In L Company Captain Cousart was captured, as was Lieutenant Abraham Mildenberg, while Lieutenant William Bateman was killed and Lieutenant James Dyer was reported missing. Lieutenant James Schock brought off a platoon of survivors.

Captain Mackay, of M Company, also managed to escape with ten men as did Lieutenant Thomas B. W. Fales with a whole platoon, while Lieutenants William B. Brown, Walter L. Sworts and Edward Hitzcroth were captured.

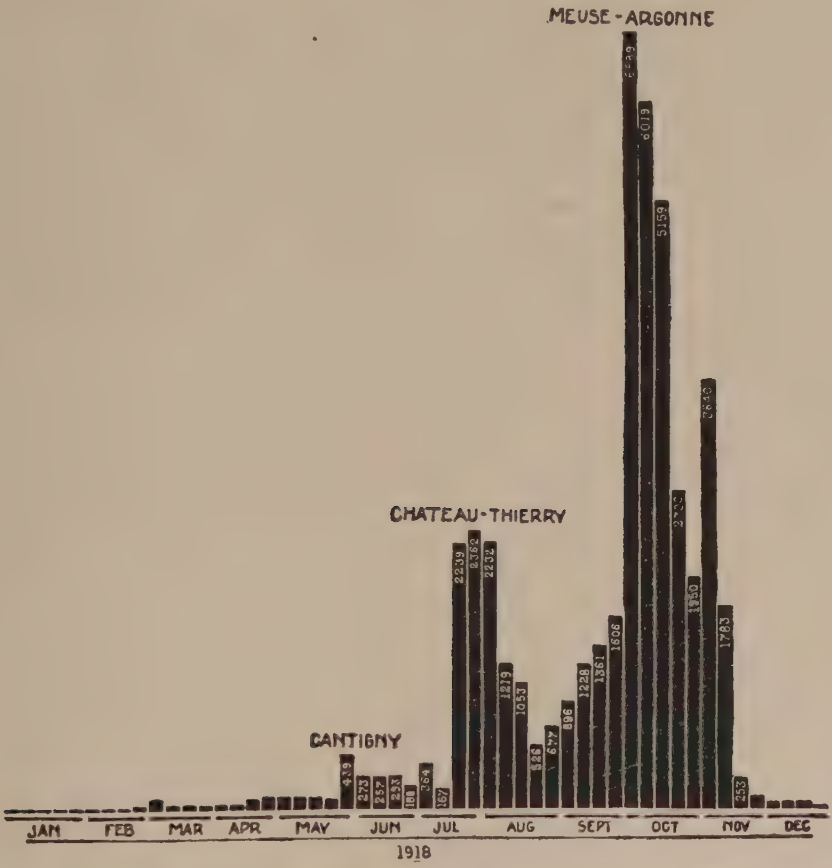
In B Company, of the 110th, Captain Fish, Lieutenant Claude Smith and Lieutenant Gilmore Hayman brought off about 123 men, while Lieutenant James Gus Graham and Lieutenant Bert Guy were taken prisoner, the latter being so badly wounded that he died shortly after reaching a German prison camp in Bauthen, Silesia.

Captain Truxal and Lieutenants Wilbur E. Schell, C Company, 110th, were taken prisoner, as was James Gee, of A Company, who had been temporarily assigned to C, while Captain Charles L. McLain, of F Company, also assigned to C, was gassed, and Lieutenant Samuel S. Crouse killed.

On the left the 3d American Division held intact, but the collapse of the French and the isolation and ultimate destruction of the four companies of the 28th Division endangered the entire right flank of the American forces and at the same time formed a pocket which began at Mezy and continued westward to Dormans. In this extremity the 38th United States Infantry, the most eastern unit of the 3d Division, swung its right wing down the course of the Sumerlin River as far as

Connigis, where a portion of the 125th French Division, reorganized, maintained a front extending southeasterly to Monthurel.

From Monthurel due eastward ran the line of the 109th Infantry, thus suddenly thrown from support to a front line position. To the right of the 109th lay the 20th French Division, a shock unit which had been hurried up when the 125th collapsed. The 110th American Infantry, west of the Sumerlin, while exposed to the Hun bombardment was protected by the French line between Connigis and Monthurel, from direct attack.



Battle Deaths Each Week in the American Expeditionary Forces

The German horde poured down through the Bois de Conde, hours behind schedule, due to the splendid resistance of the four companies, and emerged on the front of the 109th late in the afternoon. The 28th Division was by no means in shape to withstand the shock, but despite the fact that some of its equipment was missing and many of the auxiliary divisional organizations had not yet come up, it clung to its shallow trench line desperately.

The 109th, the first battalion of the engineers and a portion of the 108th Machine Gun Battalion withstood the brunt of the German assault between Monthural and St. Agnan, breaking the formation of the Crown Prince's shock troops as they emerged from the wood and effectually preventing the massed infantry attack. On the left of the 109th's line Captain (later Lieutenant-Colonel) William H. Williams, of H Company, won the Distinguished Service Cross for the manner in which he cut his way back with a detail of men when surrounded while reconnoitering and, although wounded, joined with the French in a brilliant counter attack. A similar honor was bestowed upon Captain (later Lieutenant-Colonel) Edward J. Meehan, of D Company, who led a desperate sortie, sustained a severe wound near the spine, but "carried on" in command of his company for the next four days.

On July 16th, the 1st Battalion of the 109th, reinforced by K Company, joined with the French 20th Division in a brilliant counter-attack aimed at St. Agnan and the hills surrounding it. Captain Walter M. Gearty and Lieutenant Donald MacNutt, of A Company, and Lieutenant H. Q. Griffin, of C Company, were killed and Captain Felix Campuzana, of B Company, and Lieutenant Walter Fiechter, of K Company, severely wounded. Corporal J. J. Lott, of B Company, was cited for bravery for the manner in which he twice slipped forward and cut barbed wire entanglements, returning each time to lead details through the gaps and not desisting until severely wounded.

East of Mézy the 38th Regiment of the 3d Division performed an exploit quite as glorious as that of the immortal four companies of the 28th Division. The Germans in boats protected by a tremendous barrage and hidden by a smoke screen attempted to cross the Marne. At that point the river scarcely rises to the dignity of an American creek. The 38th Regiment, realizing that if a landing were made, danger threatened the entire allied line, defied the barrage of the Germans, remained in the open and with rifle and machine-gun fire, swept a storm of shot and shell through the smoke screen. The German boats were smashed to kindling wood. Dead Germans floated in masses down the stream. The American artillery also got the range and their pointblank fire completed the work of destruction. Only one boat succeeded in getting across at this point. A sergeant with a handful of Americans was ready for it. Hand grenades were tossed into the boat with its living freight and all were destroyed.

Further east of Mézy, the Germans succeeded in landing on a point of land. This contingent was cut off and four hundred of the crack Sixth Prussian Grenadiers surrendered to half the number.

Another American division, the 42d Rainbow Division also defeated the enemy on that bloody day. The men of the Rainbow were with Gouraud. Two battalions of the 165th Regiment, the famous 69th, known as the Fighting Irish of New York, were in the front line near Somme-Py. When the German spear head with crack divisions of guards at its apex hit those two battalions there came a demonstration of concentrated machine-gun and rifle fire such as these particular Germans had never before encountered. Besides the 3d, 28th and 42d Divisions, the veteran 2d Division, composed of regulars and marines met and smashed frontal attacks of the enemy. General Pershing in a message of personal thanks to these divisions declared this action to be "one of the most brilliant pages in our military annals."

And now the time had come for the grand counter-attack. A deep pocket had been established at the Marne by the German drive and by the stonewall defense of the allied divisions on all sides. Foch, the master strategist of the war, seized this opportunity to launch the stroke that broke the back of the German offensive.

He called upon General Pershing for every available man. The American commander-in-chief responded by ordering every division that had any sort of training into line for the counter offensive. To the veteran 1st and 2d Divisions was given the post of honor in the decisive thrust against Soissons. With them in this drive were picked divisions of French shock troops.

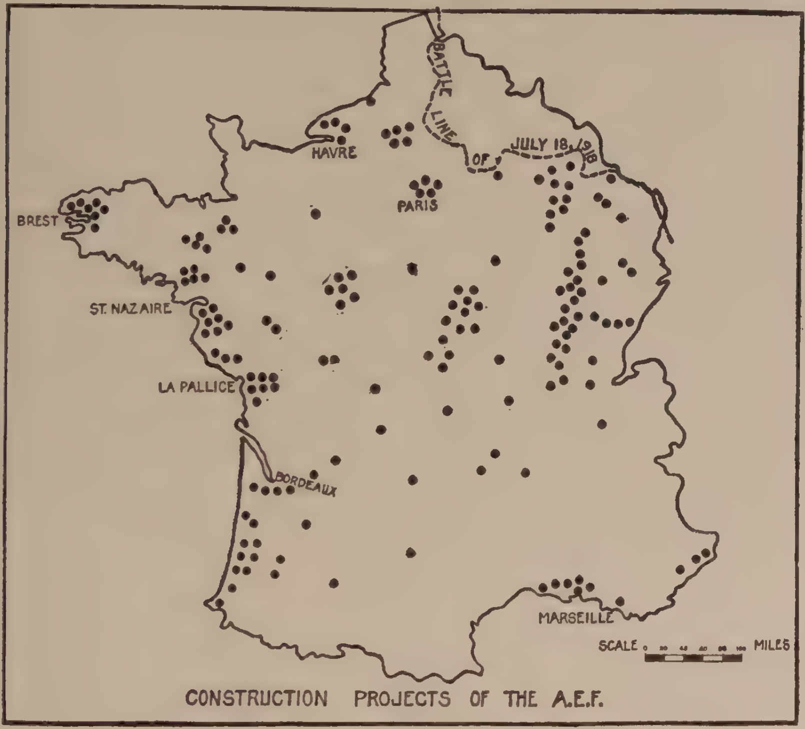
The attack commenced at dawn on July 18th. The German board of strategy was caught absolutely flatfooted and unprepared. No hint of the advance was given. It was the custom to blaze the way for hammerstrokes of the infantry by a preliminary bombardment, usually beginning about midnight and continuing through the zero hour,—that hour being selected secretly in advance and rated at zero because with it as a base, all calculations of advance, retreat and other military statistics were gauged. In this thrust there was no such preparation. Instead, the American artillery laid down a rolling barrage by their military maps, beginning at the zero hour. Behind this barrier of blighting death made scientifically exact through the use of dependable American powder and shells the infantry jumped off from their trenches and advanced steadily over No Man's Land. That advance was destined to continue without check or retreat until the Americans found themselves upon the banks of the Rhine.

When the Germans found that Foch's master stroke was on its way, they hurriedly rushed shock divisions and veteran troops against the oncoming wave. Some of their best units were opposed to the Americans.

When the front line of the German defense fell back exhausted, reserves of crack troops were ready to replace them.

So stiff was the German resistance backed with cunningly placed machine-gun nests and camouflaged artillery that every step of the advance was made at great cost in killed and wounded. But the Yankees came on. Steadily, skillfully, taking advantage of every sort of cover, the stout-hearted 1st Division fought its way through wire, over trenches, until it captured the heights overlooking Soissons and the village of Berzy-le-Sec. The 2d Division of marines and regulars in a whirlwind dash seized Vierzy and Beau Repaire farm within forty-eight hours' fighting. These two crack divisions in their resistless advance bagged more than one hundred pieces of German artillery and 7,000 prisoners.

Other American divisions performed quite as gallantly. On the morning of the 18th, the 26th Division composed of national guard soldiers from New England, captured the village of Porcy and the 3d Division crossed the Marne, routed the Germans and pursued them toward the fortifications of Mont St. Père and the villages of Chartèves and Jaulgonne, ultimately capturing these objectives, notwithstanding concentrated machine-gun and artillery fire. In this advance the Americans learned to value for the first time the fighting qualities of the famous Moroccan division of the French army. This crack organization included the historic Foreign Legion in which a number of Americans had enlisted as early as 1914.


BATTLE LINE OF JULY 18, 1918
HAVRE
PARIS
BREST
ST. NAZAIRE
LA PALLICE
BORDEAUX
MARSEILLE
SCALE
MILES
CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS OF THE A.E.F.

Construction Projects of the Army in France

The A. E. F. left its trail in the shape of more or less permanent improvements over the greater part of France. Every dot represents a place at which one or sometimes several projects were undertaken.

Ludendorff, Von Hindenburg and the Crown Prince realized too late that their position in the Marne salient was untenable. They now knew that the American soldier was a formidable fighter and that the balance of manpower and of all munitions of war had passed definitely from the Germans to the Allies. They realized further that the initiative had passed into the hands of Foch, and that German militarism for the first time since August 1, 1914, was on the defensive.

In the beginning of the drive the Allies went forward behind tanks, but as the infantry gained impetus the tanks were left behind. After that it became an attack in which mobile artillery, airplanes, observation balloons and infantry played the principal parts. As the battle progressed, it increased in desperation. The 1st Division suffered casualties of 3,000 in a single day's fighting. It lost a total of more than 7,200 men out of its entire complement of 12,000 infantry in this engagement. Fighting side by side with the Moroccans, it kept the hot pace established by those furious veterans and it remained in the fight after the Moroccans had been withdrawn for rest. More than sixty per cent of all the infantry officers of the division were wounded. The 26th Regiment suffered losses of all officers above the rank of captain. It emerged from the battle commanded by a captain of less than two years' experience.

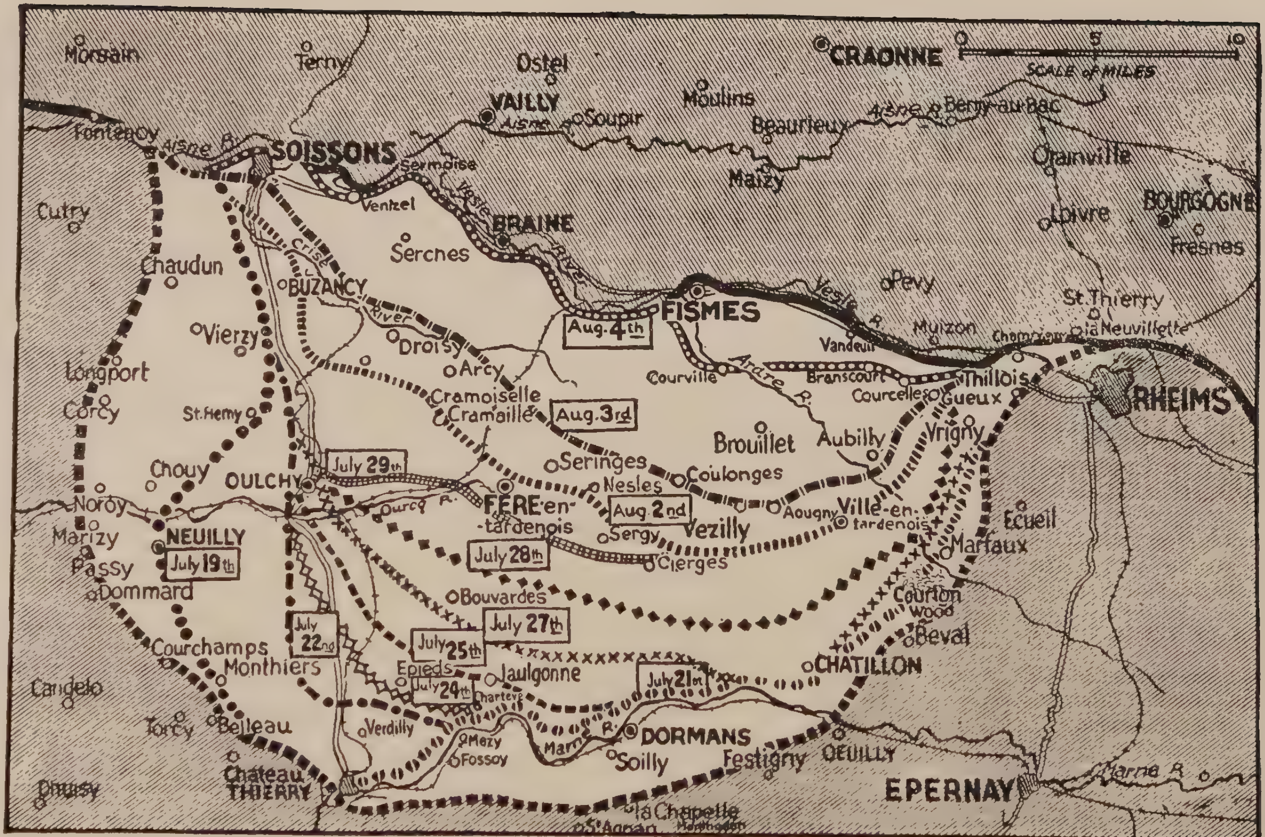
The sudden rush of the Allies cut the Château-Thierry-Soissons road that was the principal communication between the German front lines and the base of supplies. This meant that the Germans must retreat in full force immediately if they were to avoid wholesale rout and capture. A battle of movement in which rear-guard actions by machine-gun nests and hidden riflemen were important factors ensued. In the van of the pursuing allied forces were three heroic American divisions. All were wearied by forced marching and heavy fighting, but they came on eager to fight to the end. These were the 28th Division, which crossed the Marne at Dormans; the 3d Division, which crossed at Château-Thierry and the 26th, coming from the Belleau Wood sector. The 26th made good its footing early in the advance by taking Hill 204, overlooking Château-Thierry, by direct assault.

The Germans turned to fight in the rocky ridges at Epieds. There the artillery was massed, machine guns hidden in carefully prepared nests swept the open country before them. Back of their front lines, the Germans massed reserves in a desperate effort to hold off the allied rush long enough to enable them to save guns, munitions and supplies that were pouring out of the Marne pocket, in long, heavily laden trains. Here some of the fiercest fighting of the war visited heavy casualties upon both sides. The French and Americans in perfect liaison finally swept the enemy from the heights.

The 42d Division which had been doing heroic work under General Gouraud in the Champagne region now relieved the 26th Division. On July 24th, the men of the Rainbow smashed through the Forêt de Fère, capturing machine-gun nests in a series of brilliant strategic fights. On July 27th, the 3d, 4th and 42d Divisions were well on their way to the Ourcq, and by nightfall of that day, the 42d reached the banks of that river. The 3d Division, was relieved by the 32d, national guardsmen from Michigan and Wisconsin. In co-operation with the 42d, the 32d Division made a brilliant dash against the German fortified positions on the heights beyond Cierges. The Rainbow men overran and captured Sergy, and soldiers of the 32d in a daring assault captured Hill 230. Germans retreated in disorder to the Vesle River. The exhausted 42d Division was thereupon relieved by the 4th Division of regulars and the victorious 32d Division was replaced by the Pennsylvanians of the 28th Division. These were joined by the 77th Division, an organization of the National Army coming wholly from New York City.

As an example of the desperate resistance encountered by the Americans, this report from the headquarters of the 1st Army Corps concerning the advance of the 42d Division gives a graphic picture:

> To halt our too rapid advance, fresh German divisions were thrown into line, and it was along the Ourcq that the most stubborn fighting along our corps' front, during the entire operation, occurred. On the yellow wheat fields that gradually slope eastward from Meucry Farm, on the heights of Hill 184, which dominated Fère-en-Tardenois, remained innum-



How the Soissons-Rheims Salient Was Destroyed.
Showing the successive drives from July 19th to August 4th that forced back the Germans from the Marne to the Vesle.

erable evidences of the stubbornness of the fighting. The bodies of our men often lay in rows not twenty yards from the German fox holes; the opposing lines were often within a stone's throw of each other and the bodies of the German and American dead in the same machine-gun nests were a further testimony of the mutual stubbornness of the conflicts.

With the arrival of the Americans at the Vesle, nine divisions of Yankee soldiers had been tested to the utmost in modern battle and all had acquitted themselves with distinction. These divisions were the first in action almost continuously from Cantigny to Soissons; 2d Division, heroes of Belleau Wood, Bouresches, Vaux and Soissons; 3d Division, Château-Thierry, Mézy; the 4th Division, the fighting along the Vesle; the 26th Division, Hill 204, the advance toward the Vesle; the 28th Division, defense of the Marne at Dormans, crossing of the Ourcq; the 32d Division, the advance to the Ourcq; the 42d Division, veterans of the Champagne sector, fighting at Fère-en-Tardenois and the crossing of the Ourcq; the 77th Division, the sector at Bazoches.

The stand of the Germans at the Vesle was only halfhearted. Their one concern was to get out of the Marne pocket as speedily as possible. It was therefore comparatively easy for the 4th Division to cross that river and to take the village of Bazoches.

During this inferno of fighting the Americans were drenched with poison gas and bombed from the air by daring German aviators. Occasionally American troops in the open were swept by machine-gun fire that burst upon them from swooping German airplanes. German flame throwers added to the horror, but still the Americans came on.

A determined stand was to be made by the enemy in the town of Fismes. There all the roads between the rivers Aisne and Vesle converge. And there the Germans had made a depot of supplies and a center of communication. Careful preparations had been made by the French and Americans for the assault.

To the surprise of the allied strategists, the Germans made little resistance until the Americans entered the outskirts of Fismes. The real resistance developed on August 5th, after our men were safely in the town. Then German guns stationed about three miles from the town gave a demonstration that they had the range of every American position by opening a deadly fire upon our men. Fortunately our artillery was in position and opened a withering fire upon the German artillery positions. In the meantime, American troops advancing over the Vesle to the eastward of Fismes smashed machine-gun nests and infantry resistance. That doomed Fismes and the territory around it.

The capture of this terrain was attended with heavy losses on both sides. Some of these casualties were due to German land mines of fiendish ingenuity. These were placed in dugouts, in ammunition dumps, and in open roads. They were set off by electrical discharge from a safe distance. In the Château des Fère near Fère-en-Tardenois, more than three tons of high explosive were placed, connected with wires so skillfully laid that the cutting of any filament would set off the entire battery of bombs. The French official report upon this brilliant action is a tribute to the soldierly qualities of the Americans:

"Compelled to make a general retreat as a result of our counter offensive on July 18th, the Germans attempted to take positions on the Ourcq, and fought stubbornly on the heights dominating the river. They were compelled, however, to give way under the repeated blows of the Allies, and then, from July 30th on, the enemy commenced a new retreat in the direction of the Vesle. Definitely dislodged from the heights of Seringes and Hill 220, northeast of Sergy, he had met a strong advance on the part of the American units, who were fresh and energetic and who were prepared to descend the slope of Roncheres, while on their right the French were advancing through Meuniere Woods. It was the movement of the American division, which advanced from Roncheres to Fismes, progressing nearly parallel to the route which runs through Colougnes, Cohans, Longueville Farm and Saint Gilles, that we will follow beginning July 30th, the date of this division's entry into the sector, until August 5th, when it entered Fismes.

"An interesting point is that this division was made up of a great many men of German origin, who, thus shedding

U. S. Official Photograph.

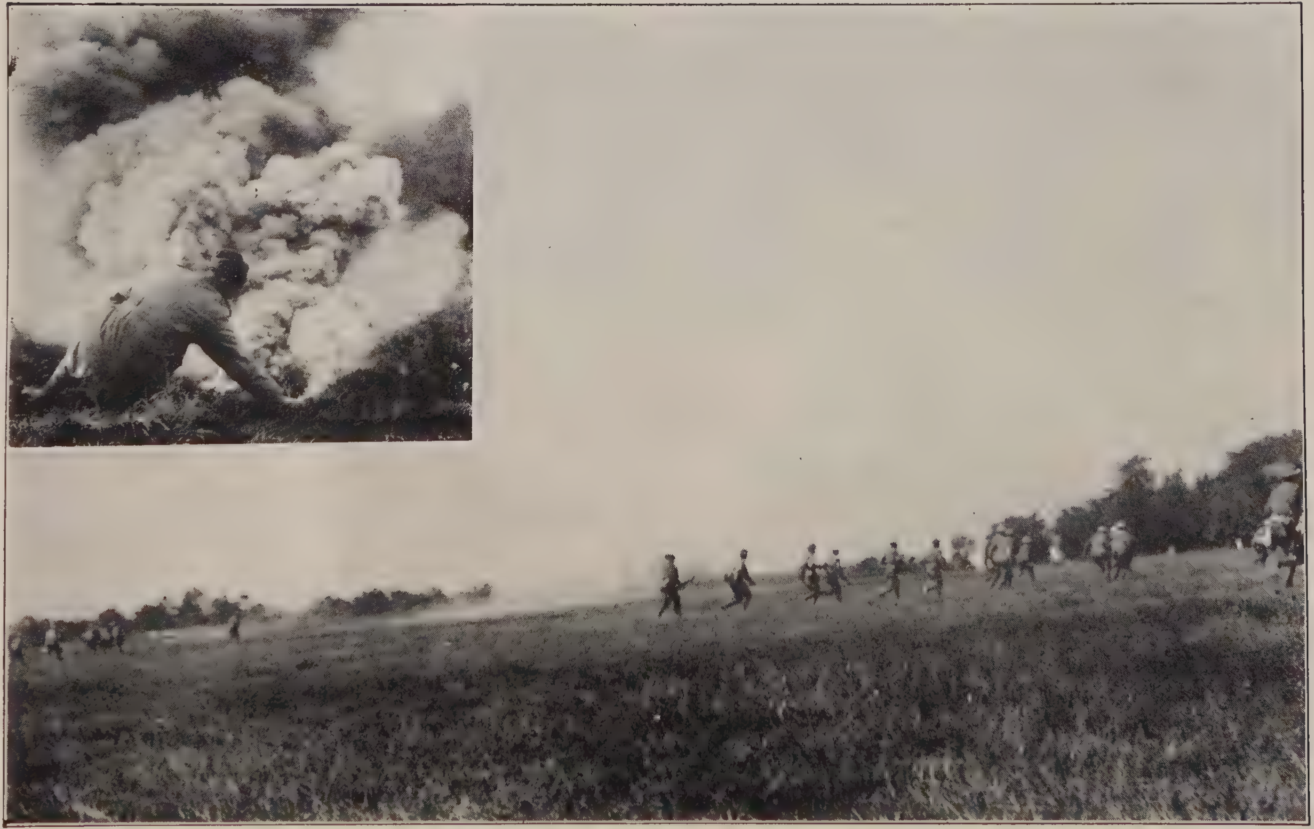
A HAND-GRENADE ASSAULT

American soldiers of the 332d Infantry on the Piave Front hurling a shower of bombs into the Austrian trenches near Varage, Italy, September 16, 1918.

U. S. Official Photograph.

"READY"

Members of the 132d Infantry, 33d Division in a front line trench expecting an attack at any moment. From this trench can be seen the valley of the Meuse where it is estimated that 70,000 men are buried. France.



U. S. Official Photographs.

AMERICANS ATTACKING UNDER COVER OF SMOKE BOMBS

Companies M and K, 326th Infantry, 82d Division, advancing on enemy positions under cover of smoke and throwing hand grenades. Choloy, France, August 1, 1918. The insert shows one method of making smoke by setting off smoke pots.

their blood for the United States, gloriously showed their loyalty.

"On July 30th, the Americans attacked Grimpeos Woods after a short artillery preparation and reached the southeastern corner of the wood, but the German resistance at this point was very strong. They counter-attacked and threw back the advance troops of the division. The fighting was extremely severe, and there were many hand-to-hand combats.

"On the next day, July 31st, the entire woods fell into the hands of the Americans. Machine-gun nests, which held up their advance on Cierges, had been crushed or captured, and the way was clear. Intrenched now in Jomblets Woods, the enemy, by a strong fire, attempted holding up the American advance. Cierges is situated in a hollow, so that the Germans, after having evacuated the village under the American pressure, bombarded it heavily with gas. The Americans did not stop in Cierges itself. They went around it in a magnificent dash and stormed the northern slopes. Then, after a short rest, they captured part of the Jomblets Woods. During this time the French had advanced on the right and debouched from Meuniere Wood, which had been cleared out thoroughly.

"On August 1st, the Americans had a new series of obstacles ahead of them, the most important being Reddy Farm and Hill 230. During the previous day's fighting they already had shown a keen sense for infantry maneuvering, employing tactically the gains which were most sure of accomplishing their purpose, and giving evidence of fine qualities of initiative and imagination. In addition, they showed excellent knowledge of the use of the machine gun, automatic rifles and light mortars. They were able again to reduce the German positions. Hill 230 was taken in a superb manner, and seventy prisoners were counted.

"From that moment, the enemy fled, and only weak rear-guards were left to oppose the advance of the Americans who swept these obstacles before them on their route and took without much difficulty Chamery, Moncel and Villome. At Cohans the Germans hung on several hours, but had to give it up, and at the end of the day United States troops had attained the heights north of Dravegny. Consequently progress of six or seven kilometers was made on the day of August 2d. For seventy-two hours straight the infantry had fought, despite the difficulty of procuring food, caused by the fact that only a narrow road afforded the convoys an opportunity of coming up, and the hard rains had soaked the road.

"In spite of fatigue and privations, the advanced unit's pursuit was taken up again at dawn on August 3d. The line which runs by Les Bourleaux was reached easily enough, but then the enemy turned and faced the Americans with many sections of machine guns and a strong artillery fire which rained down on the villages of the valley, on the crossroads and the ravines.

"It became necessary to retire methodically and maneuver on the strong points of the adversary. This permitted the United States troops to reach the slopes north of Mont St. Martin and St. Gilles. The division had thus added to its gains seven kilometers. One last supreme effort would permit it to attain Fismes and the Vesle.

"On August 4th, the infantry combats were localized with terrible fury. The outskirts of Fismes were solidly held by the Germans, where their advanced groups were difficult to take. The Americans stormed them and reduced them with light mortars and 37's. They succeeded, though not without loss, and at the end of the day, thanks to this slow but sure tenacity, they were within one kilometer of Fismes and masters of Villes Savoye and Chezelle Farm. All night long, rains hindered their movements and rendered their following day's task more arduous. On their right the French by similar stages had conquered a series of woods and swamps of Meuniere Woods, to the east of St. Gilles, and were on the Plateau of Bonne Maison Farm. To the left, another American unit had been able to advance upon the Vesle to the east of St. Thibaut.

"On August 5th the artillery prepared for the attack on Fismes by a bombardment, well regulated, and the final assault was launched. The Americans penetrated into the village and then began the task of clearing the last point of resistance. That evening this task was almost completed. We held all the southern part of the village as far as Rheims road, and patrols were sent into the northern end of the village. Some even succeeded in crossing the Vesle, but were satisfied with making a reconnaissance, as the Germans still occupied the right bank of the river in great strength. All that was left to be accomplished was to complete the mopping up of Fismes and the strengthening of our positions to withstand an enemy counter-attack.

"Such was the advance of one American division, which pushed the enemy forward from Roncheres on July 30th a distance of eighteen kilometers and crowned its successful advance with the capture of Fismes on August 5th."

In recognition of the American co-operation in Foch's master stroke, General Mangin of the French Army on August 7th, issued the following order of the day:

> Shoulder to shoulder with your French comrades, you threw yourselves into the counter-offensive on July 18th. You ran to it as if going to a feast. Your magnificent dash upset and surprised the enemy, and your indomitable tenacity stopped counter-attacks by his fresh divisions. You have shown yourselves to be worthy sons of your great country, and have gained the admiration of your brothers in arms.
>
> Ninety-one cannon, 7,200 prisoners, immense booty, and ten kilometers of reconquered territory are your share of the trophies of this victory. Besides this, you have acquired a feeling of your superiority over the barbarian enemy against whom the children of liberty are fighting. To attack him is to vanquish him.
>
> American comrades, I am grateful to you for the blood you generously spilled on the soil of my country. I am proud of having commanded you during such splendid days and to have fought with you for the deliverance of the world.

CHAPTER XIII

The Allied Tide Sweeps On

ON August 5th, 1918, Foch, generalissimo of the allied forces, gave the command for the British armies to close in on the German foe. At this time the distribution of the allied forces on the western front from the North Sea to the southern terminus of the line was in the following order: The Belgian Army; 6th French Army under General Dagouete; 2d British Army under General Plummer; 5th British Army under General Birdwood; 1st British Army under General Horn; 3d British Army under General Byng, with the 2d American Army Corps consisting of the 27th New York National Guard Division and the 13th Division consisting of soldiers from Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina and the District of Columbia; the sector in which the Americans were brigaded was north of Amiens towards St. Quentin; the 4th British Army under General Rawlinson; the 1st French Army under General Debeney; the 10th French Army under General Mangin, with some Italian troops under General Morrone and French Colonials under General Bertholet; the 4th French Army under General Gouraud; the 2d American Army under Major-General Robert L. Bullard, and the 1st American Army under Major-General Hunter K. Liggett. Aside from the 2d American Army Corps, the 27th and the 30th Divisions, with the British 3d Army, the 2d Division was with the 4th French Army for a time; the 33d was with the 17th French Army Corps, and the 37th with the 34th French Army Corps, on the Scheldt.

By the end of July the reconstruction of the British armies had been completed; the 9th Corps under command of Lieutenant-General Sir A. Hamilton-Gordon consisting of four divisions subsequently joined by the 19th was bracketed with the 6th French Army. The 1st French Army, General Debeney, had been placed under the command of Haig.

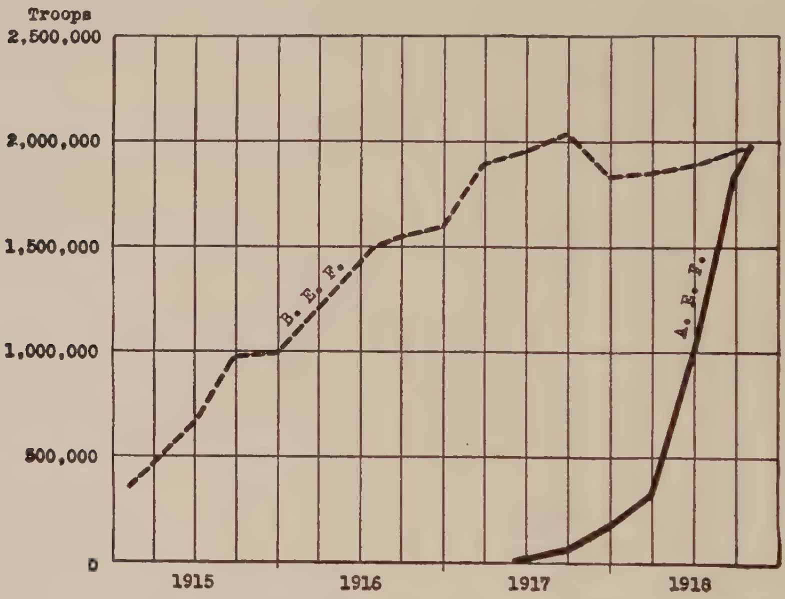
At a conference held on July 23d, when the success of the attack on July 18th was well assured, the methods by which the advantage already gained could be extended were discussed in detail. The allied commander-in-chief asked that the British, French and American Armies should each prepare plans for local offensives, to be taken in hand as soon as possible, with certain definite objectives of a limited nature. These objectives on the British front were the disengagement of Amiens and the freeing of the Paris-Amiens railway by an attack on the Albert-Montdidier front. The rôle of the French and American Armies was to free other strategic railways by operations further south and east.

Following the brilliant example set by General Gouraud and General Pershing in their surprise attacks, the 4th British Army under General Rawlinson and the 1st French Army under General Debeney on August 8th made a sudden smash along an eleven-mile front. The surprise of the enemy was complete. As in the attack along the Marne, there was scarcely any artillery preparation. A rolling barrage was laid down at the zero hour and back of it came the infantry back of tanks wherever such maneuver was possible. The first objectives of the British Army were taken in an impetuous rush. Demuin, Marcelcave, Cerisy, south of Marlancourt all fell, and the defenses of Amiens, with the sole exception of La Quesnel were captured. Approximately fourteen thousand prisoners and four hundred guns were arrested from the enemy. The 1st French Army also obtained its objectives along the line Pierrepoint, Plessier, Fresmont. They captured 3,350 prisoners and more than one hundred guns.

The battle line immediately broadened to a width of twenty-five miles. The German lines above Montdidier from Albert to the River Avre were smashed. The penetration of enemy territory in some places extended to a depth of fifteen miles. Pressure upon the Germans from August 9th to August 12th, resulted in the evacuation of Le Quesnel and in the re-occupation by the British of their old line from Roye to Chaulnes.

The Americans brigaded with the British under General Byng came into action on August 13th, when the 3d Army jumped off in the direction of Bapaume. Tanks and armored car batteries kept pace with the infantry and mobile artillery swept a hurricane of shells into the ranks of the retreating Germans.

All along the line German snipers and isolated machine-gun billets were extremely busy, but these were silenced one by one as the advance proceeded. The Germans made an extraordinary effort to blow up with field-gun-fire ammunition and other dumps which they had to leave. They abandoned an enormous quantity of stores and ammunition. Allied cavalrymen operated for more than twenty-four hours for the first time in four years. They rode through great holes torn in the German line by the infantry. Allied airmen blew up many of the bridges over the Somme river. The British cavalry rounded up many prisoners, but the most of those taken in the early stages of the fighting were captured by Australians and Canadians.



British and American Expeditionary Forces on the Western Front

The scene at Bayonvillers was typical of the rest of the battle area, broad fields of crops or brown grass fringed the town and spread for miles over the surrounding country. Abandoned German field guns with little piles of empty shell cases and the bodies of Germans lay here and there, telling the story of what had happened. Lying off on the side of the road were enemy motor trucks, one of them with a trailer filled with artillery maps—some the headquarters staff could not save.

The guns abandoned here, as elsewhere, were in shallow pits three feet deep. Little holes nearby, covered with curved iron slabs, showed where the German gunners lived before they were killed or ran to save themselves. Harbonnières was shelled to pieces. The walls showed the accuracy of the British artillery fire. Débris lay all over the streets, which bore little signs upon which German names had been written. Here the allied forces found the house which the German mayor of the town had occupied. The whole top had been knocked off and several shells had hit the walls, but there were evidences that the mayor had stayed until the last moment in a room on the ground floor.

Montdidier, an important supply center for the Germans, was captured on August 10th. When the French troops entered, the Germans had not yet completely evacuated the town, clinging to the outskirts of the place with the help of machine guns. Some of these were being served by officers of the detachments, all the men having been killed or wounded. Following up this victory, the French cavalry, pushing far ahead, threw the Germans into disorder as they sought to fall back. In the wake of the cavalry came the armored cars with automatic guns, which scattered terror and destruction among the retreating foe.

The 2d Corps, comprising the 27th and 30th Divisions of the American Army were assigned by General Byng to a position of high honor in co-operation with the Australian Corps during the assault upon the Hindenburg line. This attack was made from September 29th to October 1st inclusive at a point where the St. Quentin Canal passes under a ridge of hills through a tunnel. The 27th Division won glory for American dash and soldierly qualities when it smashed the Hindenburg line and pushed on beyond its objective until it occupied the town of Gouy, back of the line. The 30th Division also smashed through the German defenses and captured all its objectives speedily. This assault was delivered through a maze of barbed wire entanglements, heavily fortified trenches and shell craters and through a scientific cross-fire from machine guns.

The 30th and 27th Divisions remained in action on this front until October 19th. In that period they captured more than 6,000 prisoners, sustained heavy losses and advanced more than thirteen miles.

Albert, Thiepval, Bapaume, Croisselles, Peronne, Pozieres and a "switch line" at Droucourt-Quéant all fell. Tanks and mobile artillery kept pace with the advance of the infantry and fast motorized machine gun battalions ranged ahead of the British, Australian, Canadian and American wave. Airplanes swooping like corsairs of the air attacked German infantry and supply trains, creating panic wherever they appeared. In the town of Doury a number of German officers were captured with their battalions. Mont Doury was taken after a terrific assault.

In this advance, the Americans and Australians formed a friendship founded upon mutual admiration of soldierly qualities.

CHAPTER XIV

American Army Organized

EVENTS marched so swiftly that the American forces in France were now ready to act independently. True they had lacked the intensive training in battle areas that had been given to the soldiers of the French, British, German and Austrian Armies, but their vigor, athletic habits and mental initiative and resourcefulness had fitted them for the gigantic offensive which had been planned by Marshal Foch.

General Pershing to whom America had committed the direction of its forces in the field, after consultation with his associates in the American, British and French Armies, planned five army corps welded together in one great army under his command. His chief-of-staff was Major-General James W. McAndrew.

Organization was upon the most modern lines with all battle services represented in units proportioned to the duties encountered in a warfare which combined aviation, poison gas, flame throwers, trench mortars and other destructive agencies unknown in previous wars.

The arrangement by army corps as made just before the grand assault in the St. Mihiel salient follows:

1st ARMY CORPS

Major-General Hunter Liggett, commanding.

1st and 2d Divisions, Regular Army; 26th, (New England), 32d, (Michigan and Wisconsin), 41st, (Washington, Oregon, North and South Dakota, Colorado, New Mexico, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, and Minnesota), and 42d (Rainbow, troops from twenty-six states) Divisions, National Guard.

1st Division—Major-General Charles P. Summerall, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell King, Chief-of-Staff; Major H. K. Loughry, Adjutant-General.

1st Brigade, Infantry—Major John L. Hines; 16th and 18th Regiments; 2d Machine Gun Battalion.

2d Brigade, Infantry—Major-General Beaumont B. Buck; 26th and 28th Regiments; 3d Machine Gun Battalion.

1st Brigade, Field Artillery—(Commanding officer not announced); 5th, 6th, and 7th Regiments; 1st Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—1st Regiment.

Signal Troops—2d Battalion.

Division Units—1st Machine Gun Battalion.

2D DIVISION (U. S. M. C.)—Brigadier-General John E. Le Jeune, commanding; Brigadier-General Preston Brown, Chief-of-Staff.

3d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Hanson E. Ely; 9th and 23d Regiments; 5th Machine Gun Battalion.

4th Brigade, Infantry (Marines)—Brigadier-General John E. Le Jeune; 5th and 6th Regiments; 6th Machine Gun Battalion.

2d Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General A. J. Bowley; 12th, 15th, and 17th Regiments; 2d Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—2d Regiment.

Signal Troops—1st Battalion.

Division Units—2d Division Headquarters Troop; 4th Machine Gun Battalion.

26TH DIVISION—Major-General Clarence R. Edwards, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel Cassius M. Dowell, Chief-of-Staff; Major Charles A. Stevens, Adjutant-General.

51st Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General George H. Shelton; 101st and 102d Regiments; 102d Machine Gun Battalion.

52d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General C. H. Cole; 103d and 104th Regiments; 103d Machine Gun Battalion.

51st Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General D. E. Aultman; 101st, 102d, and 103d Regiments; 101st Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—101st Regiment.

Signal Troops—101st Field Battalion.

Division Units—26th Headquarters Troop; 101st Machine Gun Battalion.

32D DIVISION—Major-General W. G. Haan, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel Allen L. Briggs, Chief-of-Staff; Major John H. Howard, Adjutant-General.

63d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General William D. Connor; 125th and 126th Regiments; 120th Machine Gun Battalion.

64th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General E. B. Winans; 127th and 128th Regiments; 121st Machine Gun Battalion.

57th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General G. Le Roy Irwin; 119th, 120th, and 121st Regiments; 107th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—107th Regiment.

Signal Troops—107th Battalion.

Division Units—32d Headquarters Troop; 119th Machine Gun Battalion.

41ST DIVISION (Sunset)—Major-General Robert Alexander, commanding; Colonel Harry H. Tebbetts, Chief-of-Staff; Major Herbert H. White, Adjutant-General.

81st Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Wilson B. Burt; 161st and 162d Regiments; 147th Machine Gun Battalion.

82d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Edward Vollrath; 163d and 164th Regiments; 148th Machine Gun Battalion.

66th Brigade, Field Artillery—(Commanding officer not announced); 146th, 147th, and 148th Regiments; 116th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—116th Regiment.

Signal Troops—116th Battalion.

Division Units—41st Division Headquarters Troop; 146th Machine Gun Battalion.

42D DIVISION (Rainbow)—Major-General C. T. Menoher, commanding; (Chief-of-Staff not announced); Major Walter E. Powers, Adjutant-General.

83d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General M. Lenihan; 165th and 166th Regiments; 150th Machine Gun Battalion.

84th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General R. A. Brown; 167th and 168th Regiments; 151st Machine Gun Battalion.

67th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General G. C. Gatley; 149th, 150th, and 151st Regiments; 117th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—117th Regiment.

Signal Troops—117th Field Signal Battalion.

Division Units—42d Division Headquarters Troop; 149th Machine Gun Battalion.

2D ARMY CORPS

Major-General Robert Lee Bullard, commanding.

4th Division, Regular Army; 28th, (Pennsylvania), 30th, (Tennessee, North and South Carolina, and District of Columbia), and 36th (Missouri and Kansas) Divisions, National Guard; 77th (New York) and 82d (Georgia, Alabama, and Florida) Divisions, National Army.

4TH DIVISION—Major-General George H. Cameron, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel Christian A. Bach, Chief-of-Staff; Major Jesse D. Elliott, Adjutant-General.

7th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General B. A. Poore; 39th and 47th Regiments; 11th Machine Gun Battalion.

8th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General E. E. Booth; 58th and 59th Regiments; 12th Machine Gun Battalion.

4th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General E. B. Babbitt; 13th, 16th, and 77th Regiments; 4th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—8th Battalion.

Signal Troops—8th Battalion.

Division Units—4th Division Headquarters Troop; 10th Machine Gun Battalion.

28TH DIVISION—Major-General C. H. Muir, commanding; (Chief-of-

Staff not announced); Lieutenant-Colonel David J. Davis, Adjutant-General.

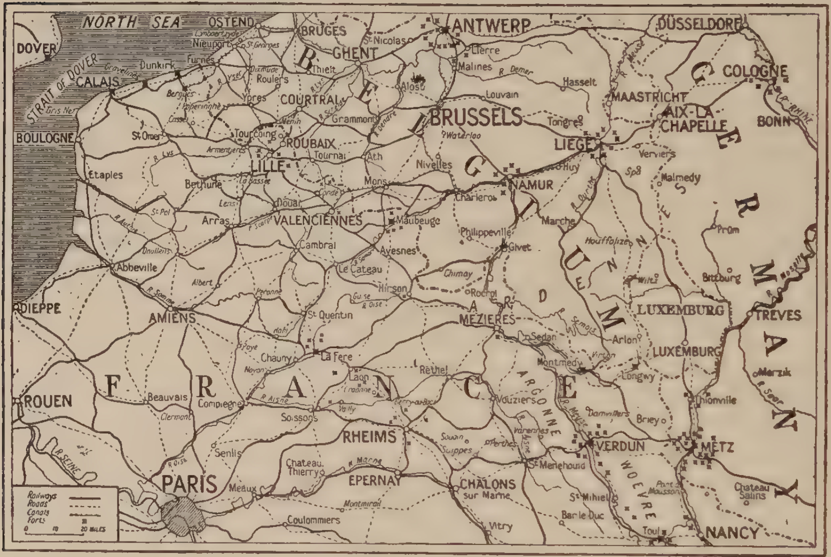
55th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General T. W. Darrah; 109th and 110th Regiments; 108th Machine Gun Battalion.

56th Brigade, Infantry—Major-General William Weigel; 111th and 112th Regiments; 109th Machine Gun Battalion.

53d Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General W. G. Price; 107th, 108th, and 109th Regiments; 103d Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—103d Regiment.

Signal Troops—103d Battalion.



THE WESTERN BATTLE AREA.

Showing the principal railways, roads, canals and forts from the German frontier to the sea.

Division Units—28th Division Headquarters Troop; 107th Machine Gun Battalion.

30TH DIVISION (Wild Cat)—Major-General Edward M. Lewis, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel Robert B. McBride, Chief-of-Staff; Lieutenant-Colonel Francis B. Hinkle, Adjutant-General.

59th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Lawrence D. Tyson; 117th and 118th Regiments; 114th Machine Gun Battalion.

60th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Samuel L. Faison; 119th and 120th Regiments; 115th Machine Gun Battalion.

55th Brigade, Field Artillery—(Commanding officer not announced); 113th, 114th and 115th Regiments; 105th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—105th Regiment.

Signal Troops—105th Battalion.

Division Units—30th Division Headquarters Troop; 113th Machine Gun Battalion.

35TH DIVISION—Major-General Peter E. Traub, commanding; Colonel Robert McCleave, Chief-of-Staff; Major J. M. Hobson, Adjutant-General.

69th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Nathaniel McClure; 137th and 138th Regiments; 129th Machine Gun Battalion.

70th Brigade Infantry—Brigadier-General Charles I. Martin; 139th and 140th Regiments; 130th Machine Gun Battalion.

60th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General L. G. Berry; 128th, 129th and 130th Regiments; 110th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—110th Regiment.

Signal Troops—110th Battalion.

Division Units—35th Division Headquarters Troop; 128th Machine Gun Battalion.

77TH DIVISION (Upton)—Major-General George B. Duncan, commanding; (Chief-of-Staff not announced); Major W. N. Haskell, Adjutant-General.

153d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Edward Wittenmeyer; 205th and 306th Regiments; 305th Machine Gun Battalion.

154th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Evan M. Johnson; 307th and 308th Regiments; 306th Machine Gun Battalion.

152d Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General Thomas H. Reeves; 304th, 305th and 306th Regiments; 302d Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—302d Regiment.

Signal Troops—302d Battalion.

Division Units—77th Division Headquarters Troop; 304th Machine Gun Battalion.

82D DIVISION—Major-General W. P. Burnham, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel Royden E. Beebe, Chief-of-Staff; Lieutenant-Colonel John R. Thomas, Adjutant-General.

163d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Marcus D. Cronin; 325th and 326th Regiments; 320th Machine Gun Battalion.

164th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Julian R. Lindsay; 327th and 328th Regiments; 321st Machine Gun Battalion.

157th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General Charles D. Rhodes; 319th, 320th and 321st Regiments; 307th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—307th Regiment.

Signal Troops—307th Battalion.

Division Units—319th Machine Gun Battalion.

3D ARMY CORPS

Major-General William M. Wright, commanding.

3d and 5th Division Regular Army; 27th (New York) and 33d (Illinois) Divisions, National Guard; 78th (Delaware and New York) and 80th (New

Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, Delaware and District of Columbia, Divisions, National Army.

3D DIVISION—Major-General Joseph T. Dickman, commanding; Colonel Robert H. Kelton, Chief-of-Staff; Captain Frank L. Purdon, Adjutant-General.

5th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General F. W. Sladen; 4th and 7th Regiments; 8th Machine Gun Battalion.

8th Brigade, Infantry—(Commanding officer not announced); 30th and 38th Regiments; 9th Machine Gun Battalion.

3d Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General W. M. Cruikshank; 10th, 76th, and 18th Regiments; 3d Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—6th Regiment.

Signal Troops—5th Battalion.

Division Units—3d Division Headquarters Troop; 7th Machine Gun Battalion.

5TH DIVISION—Major-General John E. McMahon, commanding; Colonel Ralph E. Ingram, Chief-of-Staff; Major David P. Wood, Adjutant-General.

9th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General J. C. Castner; 60th and 61st Regiments; 14th Machine Gun Battalion.

10th Brigade, Infantry—Major-General W. H. Gordon, 6th and 11th Regiments; 15th Machine Gun Battalion.

5th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General C. A. F. Flagler; 19th, 20th and 21st Regiments; 5th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—7th Regiment.

Signal Troops—9th Battalion.

Division Units—5th Division Headquarters Troop; 13th Machine Gun Battalion.

27TH DIVISION (New York)—Major-General J. F. O'Ryan, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel Stanley H. Ford, Chief-of-Staff; Lieutenant-Colonel Frank W. Ward, Adjutant-General.

53d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Alfred W. Bjornstad; 105th and 106th Regiments; 105th Machine Gun Battalion.

54th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Palmer E. Pierce; 107th and 108th Regiments; 106th Machine Gun Battalion.

52d Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General George A. Wingate; 104th, 105th and 106th Regiments; 102d Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—102d Regiment.

Signal Troops—102d Battalion.

Division Units—27th Division Headquarters Troop; 104th Machine Gun Battalion.

33D DIVISION—Major-General George Bell, Jr., commanding; Colonel William K. Naylor, Chief-of-Staff; (Adjutant-General not announced).

65th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Edward L. King; 129th and 130th Regiments; 123d Machine Gun Battalion.

66th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Paul A. Wolff; 131st and 132d Regiments; 124th Machine Gun Battalion.

58th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General James A. Shipton; 122d, 123d and 124th Regiments; 108th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—108th Regiment.

Signal Troops—108th Battalion.

Division Units—33d Division Headquarters Troop; 112th Machine Gun Battalion.

78TH DIVISION—Major-General James A. McRae, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel Harry N. Cootes, Chief-of-Staff; Major William T. MacMill, Adjutant-General.

155th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Mark L. Hersey; 309th and 310th Regiments; 308th Machine Gun Battalion.

156th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General James T. Dean; 311th and 312th Regiments; 309th Machine Gun Battalion.

153d Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General Clint C. Hearn; 307th, 308th and 309th Regiments; 303d Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—303d Regiment.

Signal Troops—303d Battalion.

Division Units—78th Division Headquarters Troop; 307th Machine Gun Battalion.

80TH DIVISION—Major-General Adelbert Cronkhite, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel William H. Waldron, Chief-of-Staff; Major Steven C. Clark, Adjutant-General.

159th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General George H. Jamerson; 317th and 318th Regiments; 314th Machine Gun Battalion.

160th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Lloyd M. Bratt; 319th and 320th Regiments; 315th Machine Gun Battalion.

155th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General Gordon G. Heiner; 313th, 314th and 315th Regiments; 305th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—305th Regiment.

Signal Troops—305th Battalion.

Division Units—80th Division Headquarters Troop; 313th Machine Gun Battalion.

4TH ARMY CORPS

Major General George W. Read, commanding.

83d, (Ohio and Pennsylvania), 89th, (Kansas, Missouri, South Dakota, Nebraska, Colorado, New Mexico and Arizona), 90th, (Texas and Oklahoma), and 92d (negro troops) Divisions, National Army; 37th (Ohio) and 29th (New Jersey, Virginia, Delaware, Maryland and District of Columbia) Divisions, National Guard.

29TH DIVISION—Major-General C. G. Morton, commanding; Colonel George S. Goodale, Chief-of-Staff; Major James A. Ulio, Adjutant-General.

57th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Charles W. Barber; 113th and 114th Regiments; 111th Machine Gun Battalion.

58th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General H. H. Bandholtz; 115th and 116th Regiments; 12th Machine Gun Battalion.

54th Brigade, Field Artillery—(Commanding officer not announced); 110th, 111th and 112th Regiments; 104th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—104th Regiment.

Signal Troops—104th Battalion.

Division Units—29th Division Headquarters Troop; 110th Machine Gun Battalion.

37TH DIVISION—Major-General C. S. Farnsworth, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel Dana T. Merrill, Chief-of-Staff; Major Edward W. Wildrick, Adjutant-General.

73d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General C. F. Zimmerman; 145th and 146th Regiments; 135th Machine Gun Battalion.

74th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General W. P. Jackson; 147th and 148th Regiments; 136th Machine Gun Battalion.

62d Brigade, Field Artillery—(Commanding officer not announced); 134th, 135th, and 136th Regiments; 112th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—112th Regiment.

Signal Troops—112th Battalion.

Division Units—37th Division Headquarters Troop, 134th Machine Gun Battalion.

83D DIVISION—Major-General E. F. Glenn, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel C. A. Trott, Chief-of-Staff; Major James L. Cochran, Adjutant-General.

165th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Ora E. Hunt; 329th and 330th Regiments; 323d Machine Gun Battalion.

166th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Malin Craig; 331st and 332d Regiments; 324th Machine Gun Battalion.

158th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General Adrian S. Fleming; 322d, 323d and 324th Regiments; 308th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—308th Regiment.

Signal Troops—308th Battalion.

Division Units—83d Division Headquarters Troop; 332d Machine Gun Battalion.

89TH DIVISION—Brigadier-General Frank L. Winn, commanding (acting); Colonel C. E. Kilbourne, Chief-of-Staff; Major Jerome G. Pillow, Adjutant-General.

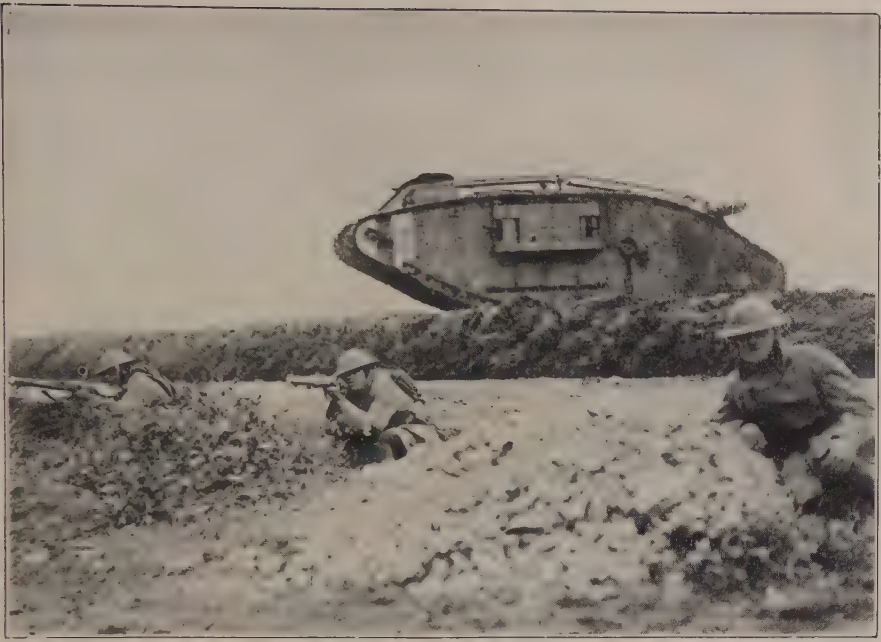
177th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Frank L. Winn; 353d and 354th Regiments; 341st Machine Gun Battalion.

178th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Thomas G. Hanson; 355th and 356th Regiments; 342d Machine Gun Battalion.

164th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General Edward T. Donnelly; 340th, 341st and 342d Regiments; 314th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—314th Regiment.

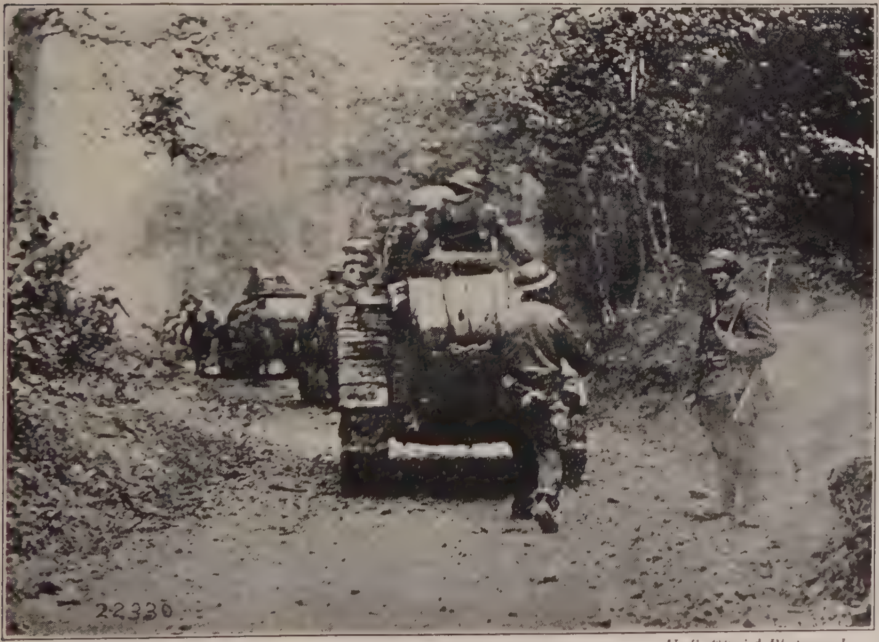
Signal Troops—314th Battalion.



U. S. Official Photograph.

MOPPING UP TRENCHES

The latest method of cleaning up German trenches with the aid of tanks. The tank proceeds along the edge of the trench fixing its machine guns, and is followed by a platoon of infantry to complete the work.



U. S. Official Photograph.

WITH THE TANKS IN THE ARGONNE

Fast whippet tanks were of the greatest assistance to our troops in wiping out machine-gun nests in the great battle.

U. S. Official Photograph

PICKING OFF THE BOCHE REARGUARD

American snipers in a town on the march from the Marne to the Vesle, plugging at Boche machine gunners in the German rearguard

Division Units—89th Division Headquarters Troop; 340th Machine Gun Battalion.

90TH DIVISION—Major-General Henry T. Allen, commanding; Colonel John J. Kingman, Chief-of-Staff; Major Wyatt O. Selkirk, Adjutant-General.

179th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General John T. O'Neill; 357th and 358th Regiments; 344th Machine Gun Battalion.

180th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General W. H. Johnston; 359th and 360th Regiments; 345th Machine Gun Battalion.

165th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General Francis C. Marshall; 343d, 344th, and 345th Regiments; 315th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—315th Regiment.

Signal Troops—315th Battalion.

Division Units—90th Division Headquarters Troop; 349th Machine Gun Battalion.

92D DIVISION—Major-General C. C. Ballou, commanding; Lieutenant-Colonel Allen J. Greer, Chief-of-Staff; Major Sherburne Whipple, Adjutant-General.

183d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Malvern H. Barnum; 365th and 366th Regiments; 350th Machine Gun Battalion.

184th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General W. A. Hay; 367th and 368th Regiments; 351st Machine Gun Battalion.

167th Brigade, Field Artillery—(Commanding officer not announced); 349th, 350th, and 351st Regiments; 317th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—317th Regiment.

Signal Troops—317th Battalion.

Division Units—92d Division Hadquarters Troop; 349th Machine Gun Battalion.

5TH ARMY CORPS

Major-General Omar Bundy, commanding.

6th Division, Regular Army; 36th, (Texas and Oklahoma), Division, National Guard; 75th, (New England), 79th, (Pennsylvania, Maryland, and District of Columbia), 85th, (Michigan and Wisconsin), and 91st (Washington, Oregon, Alaska, California, Idaho, Nevada, Montana, Wyoming, and Utah) Divisions, National Army.

6TH DIVISION—Brigadier-General James B. Erwin, commanding; Colonel James M. Pickering, Chief-of-Staff; Lieutenant-Colonel Robert S. Knox, Adjutant-General.

11th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General W. R. Dashiell; 51st and 52d Regiments; 17th Machine Gun Battalion.

12th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General J. B. Erwin; 53d and 54th Regiments; 18th Machine Gun Battalion.

6th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General E. A. Millar; 3d, 11th, and 78th Regiments; 6th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—318th Regiment.

Signal Troops—6th Battalion.

Division Units—6th Division Headquarters Troop; 16th Machine Gun Battalion.

36TH DIVISION—Major-General W. R. Smith, commanding; Colonel E. J. Williams, Chief-of-Staff; Major William R. Scott, Adjutant-General.

71st Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Henry Hutchings; 141st and 142d Regiments; 132d Machine Gun Battalion.

72d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General John A. Hulen; 143d and 144th Regiments; 133d Machine Gun Battalion.

61st Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General John A. Stevens; 131st, 132d, and 133d Regiments; 111th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—111th Regiment.

Signal Troops—111th Battalion.

Division Units—36th Division Headquarters Troop; 131st Machine Gun Battalion.

76TH DIVISION—Major-General Harry F. Hodges, commanding; (Chief-of-Staff not announced); Major George M. Peek, Adjutant-General.

151st Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Frank M. Albright; 301st and 302d Regiments; 302d Machine Gun Battalion.

152d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General F. D. Evans; 303d and 304th Regiments; 303d Machine Gun Battalion.

151st Brigade, Field Artillery—Major-General William S. McNair; 301st, 302d, and 303d Regiments; 301st Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—301st Regiment.

Signal Troops—301st Battalion.

Division Units—76th Division Headquarters Troop; 301st Machine Gun Battalion.

79TH DIVISION—Major-General Joseph E. Kuhn, commanding; Colonel Tenny Ross, Chief-of-Staff; Major Charles B. Moore, Adjutant-General.

157th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General William L. Nicholson; 313th and 314th Regiments; 311th Machine Gun Battalion.

158th Brigade, Infantry—(Commanding officer not announced); 315th and 316th Regiments; 312th Machine Gun Battalion.

154th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General Andrew Hero, Jr.; 310th, 311th, and 312th Regiments; 304th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—304th Regiment.

Signal Troops—304th Battalion.

Division Units—79th Division Headquarters Troop; 310th Machine Gun Battalion.

85TH DIVISION—Major-General C. W. Kennedy, commanding; Colonel Edgar T. Collins, Chief-of-Staff; Lieutenant Colonel-Clarence Lininger, Adjutant-General.

169th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Thomas B. Dugan; 337th and 338th Regiments; 329th Machine Gun Battalion.

170th Brigade, Infantry—(Commanding officer not announced); 339th and 340th Regiments; 330th Machine Gun Battalion.

160th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General Guy M. Preston; 328th, 329th, and 330th Regiments; 310th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—310th Regiment.

Signal Troops—310th Battalion.

Division Units—85th Division Headquarters Troop; 328th Machine Gun Battalion.

91ST DIVISION—Brigadier-General F. H. Foltz, commanding; Colonel Herbert J. Brees, Chief-of-Staff; Major Frederick W. Manley, Adjutant-General.

181st Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General John B. McDonald; 361st and 362d Regiments; 347th Machine Gun Battalion.

182d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Frederick S. Foltz; 363d and 364th Regiments; 348th Machine Gun Battalion.

166th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General Edward Burr; 346th, 347th, and 348th Regiments; 316th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—316th Regiment.

Signal Troops—316th Battalion.

Division Units—91st Division Headquarters Troop; 346th Machine Gun Battalion.

UNASSIGNED TO CORPS

81ST DIVISION—Major-General C. J. Bailey, commanding; Colonel Charles D. Roberts, Chief-of-Staff; Major Arthur E. Ahrends, Adjutant-General.

161st Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General George W. McIver; 321st and 322d Regiments; 317th Machine Gun Battalion.

162d Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General Monroe McFarland; 323d and 324th Regiments; 318th Machine Gun Battalion.

156th Brigade, Field Artillery—Brigadier-General Andrew Moses; 316th, 317th, and 318th Regiments; 306th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—306th Regiment.

Signal Troops—306th Battalion.

Division Units—81st Division Headquarters Troop; 316th Machine Gun Battalion.

93D DIVISION—(Commander not announced); Major Lee S. Tillotson, Adjutant-General.

185th Brigade, Infantry—(Commanding officer not announced); 369th and 370th Regiments; 333d Machine Gun Battalion.

186th Brigade, Infantry—Brigadier-General George H. Harries; 371st and 372d Regiments; 334th Machine Gun Battalion.

168th Brigade, Field Artillery—(Commanding officer not announced); 332d, 333d, and 334th Regiments; 318th Trench Mortar Battery.

Engineer Troops—318th Regiment.

Signal Troops—318th Battalion.

Division Units—332d Machine Gun Battalion.

CHAPTER XV

The Battle of St. Mihiel

AMERICA was thrilled from ocean to ocean on the morning of September 12, 1918, when the news was flashed across the continent that Germany's "Dagger aimed at the heart of France," the St. Mihiel salient, had been attacked and wiped out by the 1st American Army under the direct command of General John J. Pershing.

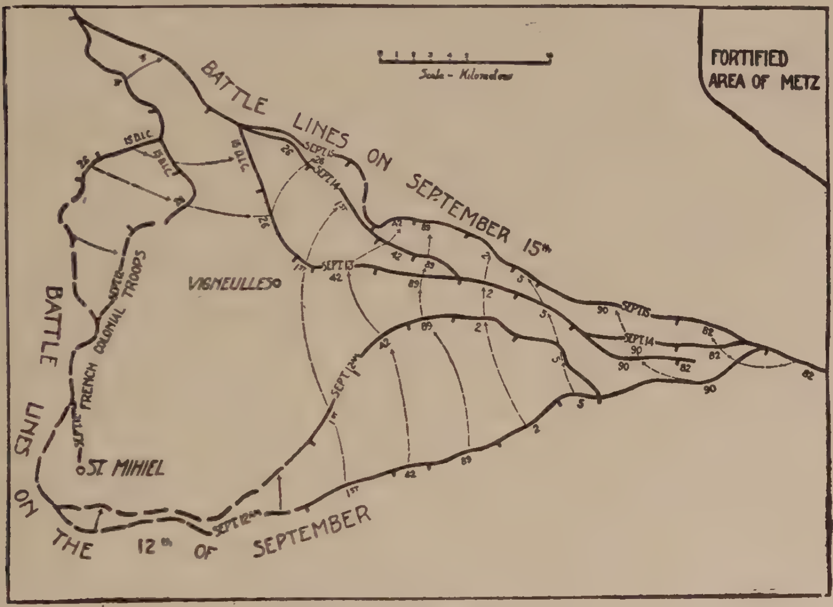
The news electrified England, France and Italy as well as the United States. American efficiency had accomplished within a comparatively few hours what had been deemed impossible. By a coincidence, the salient was wiped out exactly four years to the day after it had been established by the German Army. The destruction of the German menace to Verdun and to the allied system of transportation was a triumph of American genius.

Under the direction of General Pershing the most furious and concentrated artillery fire in the history of the world rained death and destruction upon the German positions. More than 1,000,000 shells fell upon these positions in four hours, the greatest concentration of artillery fire in all history. Only Americans were employed in the attack. These numbered 550,000 men. Casualties, less than a total of 7,000 killed and wounded, were so small as to excite the wonder and applause of all the allied powers. More than 16,000 prisoners were captured and 443 guns.

At Cantigny, Château-Thierry, Bouresches, Belleau Wood and Vaux, the American troops engaged were acting in support of allied divisions and under the command of the generals of the Allies. St. Mihiel was the first distinctly American offensive, carried out for the most part by American troops and wholly under the orders of the American commander-in-chief; and it was one of the most significant successes of the war.

The great German drives in the spring of 1918 forced back the French and British and they stood, as Haig expressed it, "With their backs to the wall." Help was urgently needed and General Pershing was compelled to temporarily abandon his original plan of developing a purely American Army or armies.

The American troops as fast as they were trained were sent into the battle line to fight side by side with the French and the British. But by the middle of August the situation had changed. The German drives had failed, and American troops trained by actual warfare in great numbers were scattered over France. At the Battle of Cantigny the 1st, 2d, 26th and 42d divisions were the only American divisions of any experience. Now they had become veterans and the 24th, 28th, 32d and 77th divisions had all taken part in the war. General Pershing, therefore, with characteristic tenacity reverted to his original purpose, and during the month of August organized the 1st American Army, collecting the scattered divisions from their positions among the French



The Battle of St. Mihiel

and British and establishing the American line as he originally planned along the bounds of the St. Mihiel salient.

Up to this time American troops had fought under the direction of French and English commanders. It is true that on the 4th of July there had been organized the 1st American Corps under General Hunter Liggett, but this corps had been a part of the 6th French Army, and most of the time it directed only one American division. With the exception of this corps all higher staffs had been French.

The creation of efficient corps and army staffs is a very difficult undertaking. To create good soldiers in a year's training was difficult enough,—the Germans had believed it impossible,—but that working staff organizations should be created in the short time since the Americans had entered into the war was many times more difficult.

Most of the ranking American officers when the war broke out had been majors, colonels and lieutenant-colonels of regiments consisting at that time of 800 men. To be promoted in a few months to the command of divisions of 28,000 men and then to become corps commanders, responsible for 81,000 men, and then to command an army consisting of from 180,000 to 250,000 was a big increase in responsibility. The peaceful policies of the American Government had not trained the army officers for such a war as this. Yet it was necessary to organize American staffs, the soldiers wished it. They would fight better under American leadership, and it was ridiculous and would have been humiliating to put two million men in the fighting line under foreign generals.

On the 10th of August the 1st American Army was formed under the command of General Pershing himself. This army acted under the direction of himself, as commander-in-chief, and of the General Staff of the American Expeditionary Force. It was determined that the first operation of this new American Army should be the capture of the St. Mihiel salient. The St. Mihiel salient was a difficult position to capture. Its position was almost entirely on high ground. A report of the Intelligence Section of the first corps created reads: "The strength of the enemy position had for four years seemed impregnable, and had withstood in 1914–15 the bloody attacks of the French at Les Eparges, Apremont, and the Bois Le Brethré. Such names in the early part of the war had vied in notoriety with Mons, Ypres, Louvain, Tahur, Vauquois and Verdun. They were symbolic of the days of trench warfare, in which opposing trenches were often no farther apart than ten meters, and in which mining and underground warfare played a principal part. They typified campaigns in which 100,000 lives were sacrificed to push back a trench line a few hundred meters.

The St. Mihiel salient had been established on September 12, 1914, when the Metz detachment of the 6th German Army under the Crown Prince of Bavaria, the main army having been driven from the Grande Couronne by the 2d French Army under General De Castelnau, tried to flank the latter by driving back the 3d French Army under General Ruffy and gain the heights of the Meuse, from which elevations it could, in co-operation with the Imperial Crown Prince and the 5th German Army, have enveloped Verdun.

Prince Rupprecht failed, but the salient he then established, embracing the plain of the Woevre, and the basin of the Moselle, where the German fortress of Metz was located, still remained with its vertex at St. Mihiel, resisting all attacks for four years.

By the fall of 1918, St. Mihiel had become a quiet sector. It was held by nine German divisions, about 90,000 men, most of which were reserve, Landwehr, or Austro-Hungarian regiments, and this defense was so thoroughly organized and protected by machine guns, trenches, and lines of wire, supported by artillery, that it was considered almost impregnable. The salient, however, had long ceased to be of any great military importance to the Germans. Their main reason for persisting in maintaining it was probably sentimental. However, the existence of the salient caused much annoyance to the French. Colonel de Thomasson, a French military expert, explained the German tenacity as follows:

"We believed in the spring of 1917 that the enemy was about to abandon the St. Mihiel salient. They did not, because they desired, first, to continue to encircle Verdun from the east; second, to cut at St. Mihiel the Commercy-Verdun railroad, obliging us to avoid the Commercy station, and make a detour by Condrecourt to communicate with Nancy; third, to keep the Briey mining basin far from the firing line. Those probably were the reasons which stopped General Ludendorff recently from straightening the front between the Meuse heights and the Moselle, an operation which would have given him much needed effectives."

The new American Army made its preparations for attack with a great attempt at secrecy. The troops were moved at night, and concealed in the woods. The railroads. the artillery and the air service were ordered not to show unusual activity.

The Germans, however, knew what was going on, and had a pretty accurate idea of the disposition of the troops, and even of the day the advance was to take place. Indeed, if they were deceived at all it was because the American preparations were so easily detected that they suspected that they were only a feint. Meanwhile they determined to evacuate the site as soon as they had finished preparing a main defense line in the rear. Indeed, heavy artillery was being removed before the battle began. The Germans probably underestimated the American strength and believed that their infantry could easily withdraw with little loss. That they were not able to do this was caused by the speed and vigor of the American attack.

The troops under General Pershing were arranged as follows: On the extreme right of the line, on the southern side of the salient was the 82d Division, draft men from Georgia under Major-General Duncan; then came the 90th, another new division from Texas and Oklahoma, under Major-General Allen. Further west in order came the 5th and 2d Divisions of Regulars; then the 89th, a Missouri draft division, which had been trained in America by General Wood. To the left of the 89th came the Rainbow Division, the 42d, under Major-General Flagler, and lastly the 1st Division, of Cantigny fame. The line from the 1st Division west and north around St. Mihiel was held by the 2d French Colonial Corps whose duty was to follow the Germans when their retreat began. This line extended north until it joined the

American 5th Corps, consisting of the 26th Division, a New England Division, which had on its left the 15th French Division.

The St. Mihiel salient was bounded by hills at every point except the valley of the Rupt de Mad. This valley was a sort of a triangle with its base on the south side of the salient, about one-half of the length of the salient. It was dominated by Mont Sec on one side and by the hills near Thiaucourt. The fortifications on Mont Sec were particularly high, and observers there could control artillery fire over practically the whole Rupt de Mad valley.

General Pershing's plan of attack was to advance north in this valley, overcoming the observers on Mont Sec by superiority of artillery, while at the same time the 5th Corps on the north was to advance in the hilly country opposite its lines in a southeasterly direction, until it joined the American forces marching north, near the town of Vigneulles. If this succeeded, the Germans in the nose of the salient would be cut off from retreat and captured.

The Rupt de Mad valley was not wide enough for the plan of attack of the American armies in the south, so that the troops on the right and left of the main attack would have to advance among the hills, but the distances that they would have to advance would not be so great. The operation worked out according to plan, except, indeed, that in many cases, the advancing troops were ahead of their schedule.

On the night of the 11th of September it was raining hard, but this did not interfere with the American plan. At one o'clock in the morning the American artillery went into action and for four hours shelled the German positions. Mont Sec, the most dangerous point, was deluged with smoke shells to prevent the observers there from seeing the American advance. At five o'clock began the barrage, which moved ahead of the infantry as they went over the trenches.

At first there was but little resistance to the American attack. The forward German trenches were only occupied by patrols, and the second line had been thoroughly crushed by the artillery. The lines of wire before these trenches were passed with great ease, some of the wire the Americans cut, some they just went over.

As the Americans advanced the German defense became greater, and the American progress more difficult. Yet it was plain that the Germans were only fighting to protect their retreat, though at times stiff German resistance was encountered.

Major-General Flagler reported after the battle, "The operation was unusual in its nature because of the small amount of resistance encountered, and it is not felt that its experience should be made the basis of general deductions for use in other operations."

The German High Command claimed that their armies had "withdrawn according to plan," and indeed, they were able to withdraw the greater part of their heavy artillery and of their troops to the hill trenches, which they had previously prepared. But the speed of the American attack, and an unusual and unintended movement by a portion of the 26th Division interfered badly with their plans. The 26th Division had attacked on the north in the woods and hills south of St. Remy.

At the end of the first day they found themselves only about halfway to their first day's goal. Now, according to custom, at nightfall the infantry stops, and fighting ceases except for the artillery, but the 102d Regiment of Infantry, a portion of the 26th Division, had no idea of stopping.

Some time after dark they assembled on a road called La Grande Tranchee de Calonne and marched down that road six miles straight through the German line to Vigneulles, arriving there at 3.25 in the morning, so that when, some time later, the troops of the 1st Division, coming up from the south also ahead of their schedule, arrived at Vigneulles they found it already occupied.

This extraordinary action closed up the sides of the salient, and made it possible to capture a vast number of prisoners and guns.

Each division of the Americans engaged in the attack had done the duty assigned it with remarkable brilliancy. The main attack was made by the 4th Corps, consisting of the

1st, 42d and 89th Divisions. The 1st Corps on its right was to keep in touch with the 4th Corps. To the extreme right the 82d Division had no advance to make, but made a holding attack to keep the enemy opposite busy. The 90th Division was only required to make a short advance, and accomplished it admirably by the afternoon of the first day. The 5th Division, to its left, had a somewhat longer advance, which was accomplished with equal speed.

Then came the 2d Division, the famous division of regulars and marines, which had stopped the Germans at Château-Thierry. This division drove on to the hills beyond Thiaucourt. Its advance was not so great as that assigned to the divisions in the 4th Corps to its left, but it was made over hilly and difficult country, and was an admirable bit of work. The advances made by the 4th Corps were made up the Rupt de Mad valley. The 2d Division collected three thousand prisoners and a great deal of material, and reported that if they had been two hours later this would not have been accomplished.

The 89th Division, the 42d, the Rainbow Division, and the 1st Division, which had the longest advances to make, performed their task in their usual admirable manner, moving forward on the first day far beyong Thiaucourt, and on the second day blotting out the salient by connecting with the 26th Division on the north.

On the third day, the American lines were pushed forward after the retreating Germans until they were halted before the previously fortified line which the Germans had made behind the salient.

The American losses in the Battle of St. Mihiel were about 7,000 men; 14,439 German prisoners and 443 guns were captured. In this battle the Americans were assisted by the French. In the advance of the 26th Division on the north was accompanied by the French 15th Division, and as the American armies closed up back of the salient the 5th French Corps advanced all along the line capturing St. Mihiel and many prisoners.

The American Secretary of War, Newton D. Baker, with General Pershing and General Petain, visited St. Mihiel a few hours after it was captured, and were greeted with hysterical enthusiasm. The inhabitants of the salient had been in the power of the Germans for four years, and were found to be absolutely ignorant of the events of history during those years. They had heard no news of relatives or of world happenings. Few beside women and children were found as practically every male had been forcibly removed. The Germans had made life a nightmare for the inhabitants, even boys from ten to sixteen years had been deported and the old people forced to work for the conquerors.

When the Germans retreated they were so taken by surprise that they only partially wrecked the town. They endeavord to carry off what they could, but much of their booty was recovered. Stone bridges across the Meuse had been destroyed and the roads to the town from the east were blocked by wire and gaping trenches so that it was very difficult to enter the town.

Seen from the outside the performance of the young and fresh American Army was a brilliant one. The intelligence officer of the high military command army detachment of the German Army describes it as follows: "The artillery preparation prior to the attack was well carried out. Their objectives were bombarded with good effect, and they were able to switch from one target to another in the minimum time and with remarkable accuracy. The co-ordination between the infantry and the artillery was faultless. If the infantry ran up against a machine-gun nest, they would immediately fall back, and very soon new artillery preparation would be directed on that point. A great many tanks were in readiness for the attack, but they were only used in very small numbers as the masses of infantry accomplished the victory."

The official statement given out by the German general staff was quite a contrast to this. It said: "We are now standing on our new lines which have been prepared. During the night the evacuation of the St. Mihiel salient, which was liable to encirclement, and which had been under consideration for some years, was completed without interference. In anticipation of the attack of the French and Americans we began evacuating the salient a few days ago."

The French and the English papers were full of enthusiasm, and American soldiers were idolized by the people of Paris who stopped them on the streets to grip their hands in congratulation for the victory. Marshal Foch telegraphed to General Pershing:

> My dear General: The first American Army under your command on its first day won a magnificent victory by a maneuver as skilfully prepared as it was gallantly executed. I extend to you, as well as to the officers and troops under your command, my warmest compliments.

The American command, however, while triumphant, recognized that they still had much to learn and had not yet made a perfect American Army. In the first place it had been necessary to borrow much French artillery to carry out the artillery attack as desired. The airplane squadron was even less complete. Of the fourteen pursuit squadrons under General William Mitchell, eleven had been loaned by the French, and of the whole number of airplanes used only forty per cent were American.

In many details of the battle there had been blunders and mistakes. Traffic jams occurred preventing the artillery and transport from being in their proper positions. The infantry which had been equipped with colored panels to signal to the airplanes failed to use them. This, however, did not cause as much trouble as might have been expected as the stormy weather interfered with airplane work. Supply trains were sent along roads within an easy range of the German artillery, and to get through safely had to run the gauntlet of the German fire. But the army was so powerful that in spite of the rough edges of its performance, it carried all before it, and the new American staff was learning something hour by hour. The training they received at St. Mihiel stood them in good stead in the greater battle that was to come.

The destruction of the St. Mihiel salient removed a menace to the city of Verdun, and released the French armies at that point for active offensive operations. It also liberated the railway line from Verdun to Nancy. Its moral effect was even more important. It showed that the Germans were weakening, and that the American Army from that time on was to rank with the army of Haig and the army of Petain. However much the Germans tried to minimize the American victory, the fact remained that they were forced to leave in the hands of the victorious Americans the equivalent of two full divisions of troops, as well as an enormous amount of materials for the Allies to use against them, and that they had been compelled to destroy as much more. Paris was especially delighted that on the very day that General Pershing made his official report of the capture of the salient, the German Foreign Minister announced in Vienna that the American troops had as yet no military value. He spoke too soon.

Something should be said of the work of the French troops who were associated with the Americans in the battle of St. Mihiel. A distinguished French officer describing the battle from the French point of view said as follows: "It was one of the most successful operations of the whole war. The attack's object was to reduce the St. Mihiel salient. Well, that not only has been done, but the sides have been pinched so efficiently that the junction was effected in less than thirty hours, with a total bag of prisoners that, when all are rounded up, will exceed even thirteen thousand. The fact is that the boches were taken completely by surprise. They expected the attack, but didn't expect it so soon, and what's more, they never expected that it would be delivered with such dash and vigor.

"I cannot say too much of the conduct of the American troops. They were magnificent. From Sunday last the enemy already had begun to move his heavier guns and material from the salient. As far as we are able to reckon he was just about starting his infantry withdrawal when Pershing struck at the psychological moment and caught the boche napping, and practically unsupported by artillery. It is hardly possible for me to give a better description of the operations save as concerns the French units.

"We had a few divisions engaged, one in the north region of Les Eparges, where fighting was so bloody in the first winter of the war, under the command of an American corps leader, and the remainder under French corps commanders, subordinate, of course, to general American direction.

These were grouped in the center of the salient, one on either side, to co-operate with the American drive on the flanks of the pocket.

"The American troops had the hardest task, as the enemy resisted stubbornly, in the fastnesses of the wooded and broken country known as Mountain Wood. We were rather fortunate as we encountered Austrians, whose value is less than the Germans. We took 2,300 of them, and fifty-seven officers on the first morning.

"The Americans on our left pushed on irresistibly and kept pace with us—the poilus said nothing could stop les Américains—which is the highest praise our veterans can give. So rapid was the advance that the cavalry patrols from the left joined hands with the forces from the right early Friday morning. Our unit on the right met some resistance from the strong positions of Apremont and Loupmont woods and Mont Sec, which they occupied by a turning movement from the north. But the boche was already packing up for his backward move, and seemed to have little stomach for the fight.

"In the center, St. Mihiel was taken by a turning movement, but the enemy had not waited. We entered the town early on Friday morning and are still busy cleaning the woods to the north where the boche stragglers and patrols are continually surrendering.

"In conclusion, I would like to say a word about the Franco-American aviators, to whom no small part of the success is due. We found, and nearly all the prisoners emphasized this point, that the machine-gun fire from the air against the convoys moving northward blocked the roads and certainly prevented the escape of a large part of the boche forces. We knew already what American aid was worth, but even the most optimistic hardly counted on victory like this."

It might be added that the operations of the American cavalry were of even greater importance than those of the aviation squadrons in preventing the escape of the German convoys. The American use of cavalry, although only a small number were engaged, aided much in making the victory decisive.

CHAPTER XVI

GERMANY IN FULL RETREAT

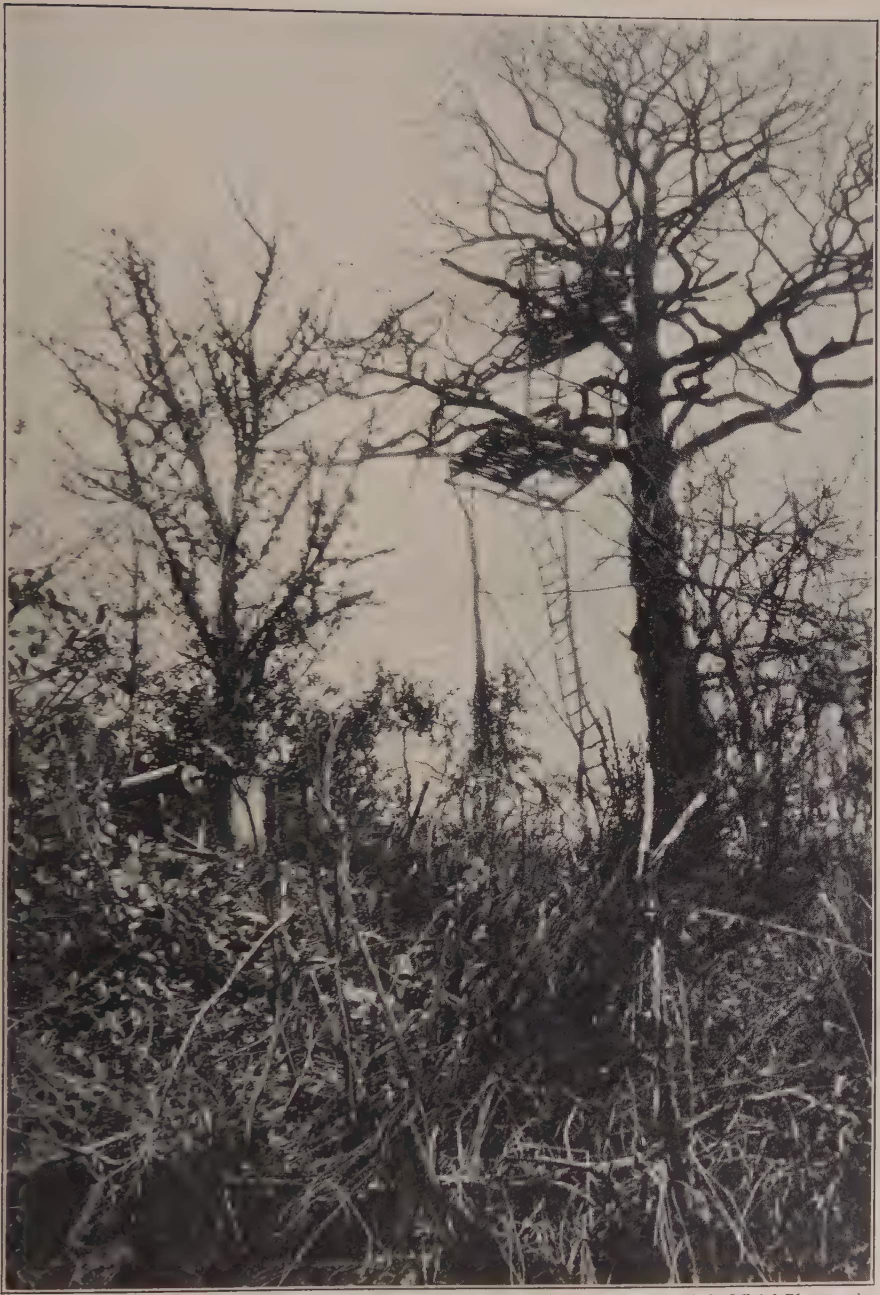
THE master stroke of General Foch was now in full swing. From the Belgian border to the end of the line in the south the American and allied armies were driving forward. They had left behind definitely and forever the trenches in which they had battled for years, the bleak stretches of No Man's Land across which their raiding parties had ventured in the face of death.

The war had suddenly become one of motion. The deadlock of entrenchments had passed. The British dash along the Somme sector had been made possible because the combined American and French assault along the Oise, the Aisne, the Ourcq and the Vesle had been a surprise and a complete success. Now the little Belgian Army at last was avenging itself for the horrors visited upon their land when the Germans overran it in August, 1914. Five American divisions at various times engaged in the operations in Belgium and northern France. These were the 27th and 30th Divisions; elements of the 33d Division; and later the 27th and 91st Divisions, which were sent to Belgium in the last stages of the Ypres-Lys offensive, October 31st to November 11th.

Nor was the offensive in which Americans participated limited to the Belgian-French battle line. American troops to the number of twelve hundred were brigaded with Italians and participated in the decisive battle of Vittorio-Veneto, October 24th to November 4th, which terminated in the compete rout of the Austrian Army.

The Americans who co-operated with the French along the battlefront from Montdidier to Rheims were in constant action. The French were under command of Generals Mangin, Humbert, Albert, Debeney, Degoutte, Berthelot and De Mitry. General Pershing in person commanded the Americans.

Most important of the earlier victories of the Americans



U. S. Official Photograph.

IN THE DEPTHS OF THE ARGONNE FOREST

A German observation post and abandoned gun, relics of the great battle. The ladders and platforms of this post were so perfectly camouflaged at the time of the attack that they were invisible at more than 500 yards while commanding the entire circle of hills and intervening ground over which the Americans advanced under concentrated machine-gun fire.

SAVED FROM THE MUD

Rescuing a comrade from a shell-hole. The incessant rains that characterize a French winter turned the battle areas into mud wallows and the shell-holes into treacherous lakes of ooze more annoying to our soldiers than the Huns or even the "cooties," many of which the men declared wore service stripes.

after the crossing of the Ourcq was the capture and complete occupation of Juvigny Plateau, north of Soissons. This important strategic height was won on August 29th.

In the face of terrific pressure the Germans on all sectors of the western front maintained an orderly retreat. Harassed from the North Sea to Verdun they were still able at enormous cost in prisoners and material to maintain an unbroken front. The French and Americans captured thirty thousand prisoners and vast quantities of munitions. In the salient at Lys the British and Americans captured strategic strongholds in Merville and Mont Kemmel compelling the Germans to withdraw on a twenty-mile front.

American detachments operating in Belgium struck heavily north of Wytschaete on September 2d and captured Voormezeele. The British co-operated with the Americans to the south and captured Neuve Eglise. By September 9th, the Americans and British were in positions overlooking and dominating Wyteschaete, which later was evacuated.

The operations in Picardy from August 18th to September 18th made one long battle from Arras to Soissons. The 32d Division under General Mangin and the 27th and 30th Divisions co-operating with the 3d British Army under General Byng were formidable factors in this great movement. It was the 32d that figured most prominently in the defeat of the Germans on Juvigny Plateau. That defeat gave to Mangin a foothold which resulted in the formation of a new allied line extending from St. Gobain southward to the Aisne. That line ultimately forced the Germans from Laon and compelled the abandonment of all the German positions south of the Chemin des Dames.

The fighting of the 32d Division was so determined and impetuous that it earned among the French the title for the unit of "Les Terribles." Here from August 29th to September 3d on the heights of Juvigny the 32d fought four of General Von Schwerin's crack divisions and defeated them. More than two thousand prisoners were taken by the Americans and the division crashed through the German lines for a total penetration of four miles on a two-mile front. The village of Juvigny was overrun with a rush, and the railway between the villages of Juvigny and Chavigny was captured. Besides these strategic gains the heroic division took possession of the St. Quentin-La Fére-Soissons highway and Terny-Sorny.

The possession of Juvigny by the Americans was the end of a dramatic race with the 227th Division of the German Army. This crack organization had been rushed from Metz for the express purpose of crushing the Americans. The doughboys of the 32d had defeated the 7th German Division and had thrown back in disorder reinforcements of the 238th and the 23d Reserve Divisions of the German Army. The entrenchments of Juvigny were occupied by the Americans just before the 227th German Division came up. The Yankees made good their footing and in a fierce counter-attack defeated the latest accession to the German forces fronting them.

Meantime the pressure of the British on the line east of Arras between the Lys and the Picardy salients outflanked the strongly fortified German positions in Lens and threatened the great depots established by the Germans at Douai and Cambrai. Lens fell without a struggle, but the British encountered strong opposition for Cambrai.

To the heroic Canadians came the honor of penetrating the German positions north of Cambrai and leading the assault which captured the town. More than eleven thousand prisoners and two hundred guns were captured between Cambrai and St. Quentin on October 7th in the fierce fighting which smashed the Hindenburg line, yielded to the Allies possession of the St. Quentin-Cambrai railway, took the railway center of Buciny and sent the German infantry into a hasty retreat, harassed by pursuing British cavalry.

The retreating Germans burned everything of an inflammable nature in the villages through which they passed. Thirty German divisions were included in the rout. As in the preceding operations the 27th and 30th Divisions of the American Army co-operated with the British.

The advance of the English and Americans in this great battle for the possession of Cambrai and St. Quentin was made behind a terrific barrage from the British artillery. The Americans drove toward the burning village of Bohain from their entrenchments at Premont. The men of the 30th

Division early on the morning of October 9th encountered an entire German regiment which had been left "up in the air" without support, due to the hasty retreat of regiments on either side. A Tennessee regiment charged the Germans, who fled indiscriminately rather than face the impetuous Southerners.

During the rapid advance in this sector the 30th Division captured two batteries of German 155's with complete ammunition and stores. American gunners were rushed to the positions and speedily turned the captured guns and shells upon the fleeing enemy.

As the German retreat increased in momentum great confusion ensued within the enemy lines. Americans advancing over the ground fronting the 27th and 30th Divisions found hundreds of Germans buried alive in collapsed dugouts which had been destroyed by British and American shells. British and American artillery were speedily placed in position before an enfiladed fire upon German batteries. British artillery supporting the attacking American troops broke down a German fire protecting Grandcourt. There the American infantry dashing over open ground, stormed the village and speedily reduced the German positions surrounding it.

Before Fresnoy le Grande the British artillery was even more effective. There the German machine-gun emplacements poured a deadly hail of missiles into the attacking forces. British gunners firing through open sights smashed emplacement after emplacement. Shells which ordinarily were used in cutting barbed wire were directed against these nests and the bursts of steel fairly demolished the Germans and their guns.

Individual heroism was everywhere during the attack and several incidents stand out from the others.

A sergeant found himself in command of a tank, the officer having become a casualty. In an isolated position the machine temporarily became disabled. The sergeant led the crew of six men to a strong point some distance away and resisted for nearly an hour strong German units that tried to reach them. Meanwhile the abandoned tank was occupied by the Germans. The sergeant led his men back and drove the enemy out, after which he retained possession of the tank until relieved.

At another point a tank was put out of action and the officer ordered the crew to remain inactive. The enemy, seeing the monster apparently helpless, approached in considerable numbers, shouting for it to surrender.

Meanwhile the officer succeeded in fixing the trifling mechanical difficulty and swung his tank around in the midst of the astonished enemy. He then ordered the crew to give the Germans a broadside.

The tank suddenly opened fire on the Germans and drove them back in great disorder.

Certain defeat now loomed ahead in the path of the German Army. Like rats running from a sinking ship the allies of Germany opened negotiations for whatever terms of peace they might make with the victorious Allies.

A death blow was struck against Germany when Bulgaria sued for peace and signed an armistice on September 29th. Hostilities ceased on the Bulgarian front and Bulgaria formally passed out of the war at noon on September 30th.

On October 4th King Ferdinand abdicated his throne in favor of Crown Prince Boris. He found himself an obstacle to the new policies of Bulgaria, and was undoubtedly in fear of revolution. Ferdinand left for Vienna on October 4th.

With the collapse of Bulgaria as a belligerent, Germany's dream of an empire of Mittel-Europa ended. For the realization of this ambitious concept, Germany needed Austria, Serbia, Bulgaria and Turkey, a dream which came into being when Germany, grown arrogant through military domination of European situations, saw before her a vast expanse teeming with natural resources ready for exploitation under German kultur. A Berlin to Bagdad Railway, a Russia that would be merely a gigantic feeder to German trade and complete overlordship of Asia's riches were components of this dream.

The surrender of Bulgaria was the death knell to these hopes. From the day of that surrender Germany relapsed as a world power into a minor rank.

While Bulgaria was thus being put out of action, the Italians and Serbians were driving the Teuton forces before them in Serbia and Albania. On October 3d Berat was occupied by Italian troops, and the Serbians with a Czecho-Slovak division ascended the Vardar to the Morava river, and on October 13th occupied Nish, cutting the Orient railway, the only link between Berlin and Constantinople. On October 13th the Italians occupied Durazzo, whose naval forces had been destroyed by the allied ships, including American submarines, and later with the Serbian and French forces pushed their columns on into Serbia and Montenegro.

Allied aviators took a most active part and gave very great help in the fighting. They constantly sent back information to the command, and without cessation they attacked enemy troops and convoys with machine guns, causing disorder among the enemy forces and preventing them from escaping from the advancing infantry.

CHAPTER XVII

THE ARGONNE: AMERICA'S GREATEST BATTLE

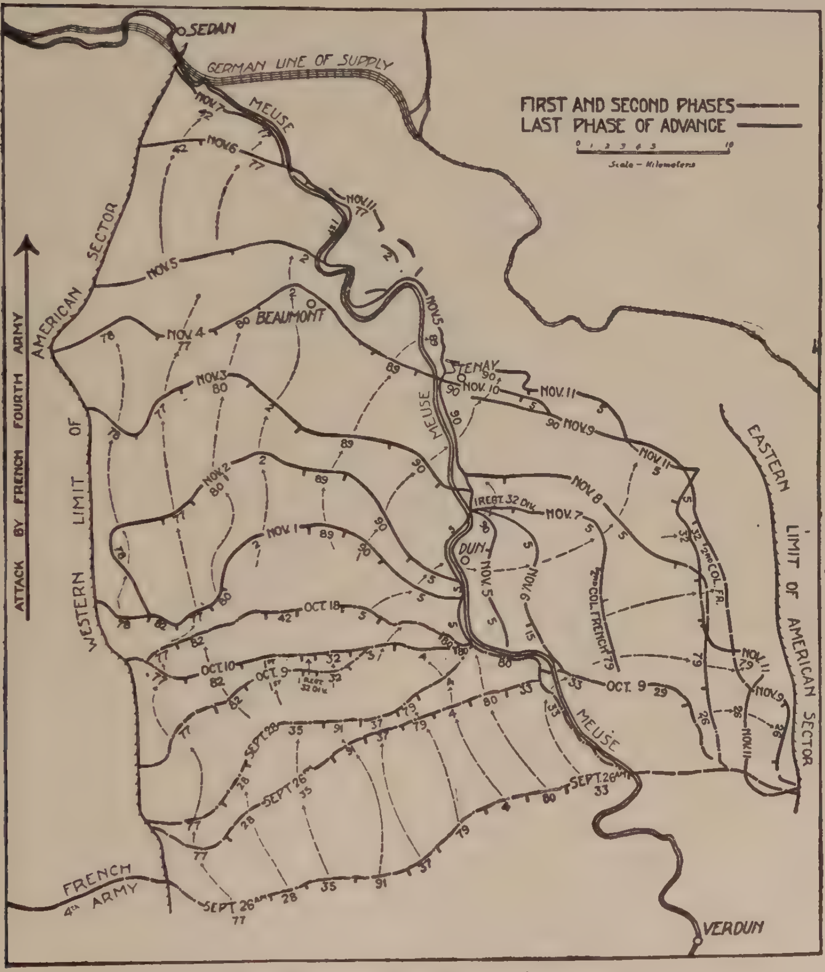
AMERICA'S greatest effort was the Argonne-Meuse battle, fought by 1,200,000 men, unified in the 1st Army under the personal direction of General Pershing. Opposed to Pershing and the Americans was the pick of the German Army under General von der Marwitz, with the German Kaiser and the German Crown Prince as interested onlookers and collaborators.

The German position was the strongest that had been occupied by the Teutonic allies since the beginning of the war. The possession of the Argonne with its natural fortresses of battlemented rock was one of the great objectives of the Crown Prince's drive into the heart of France in 1914. Since that time it had been the advanced post that constantly threatened France and the Allies. Back of it lay the Sedan-Mezières railroad, a gigantic feeder for the American forces along the greater front of the German line in France. With that railroad and its branches as a system of transportation, Von Hindenburg and Ludendorff had been enabled to hurl great masses of men, munitions and supplies into strategic positions almost over night.

The objective of the American attack was possession of the Sedan-Mezières railroad. With this line cut, a German retirement along the whole front was inevitable. Upon the vigor and power of the offensive that would cut that line might depend the absolute rout of the German Army.

General Pershing and Marshal Foch agreed that the price of that objective would be a heavy loss in American casualties. Both strategists, however, foresaw that a victory for the Americans in all probability would mean the entire collapse of the German Army and peace in 1918. If the attack were postponed it was certain the war would continue another year with another appalling total of casualties, far greater than the price that would have to be paid for the possession of the Argonne.

One of the factors making for German defeat and the end of the war in the event of American possession of the



The Battle of the Meuse-Argonne

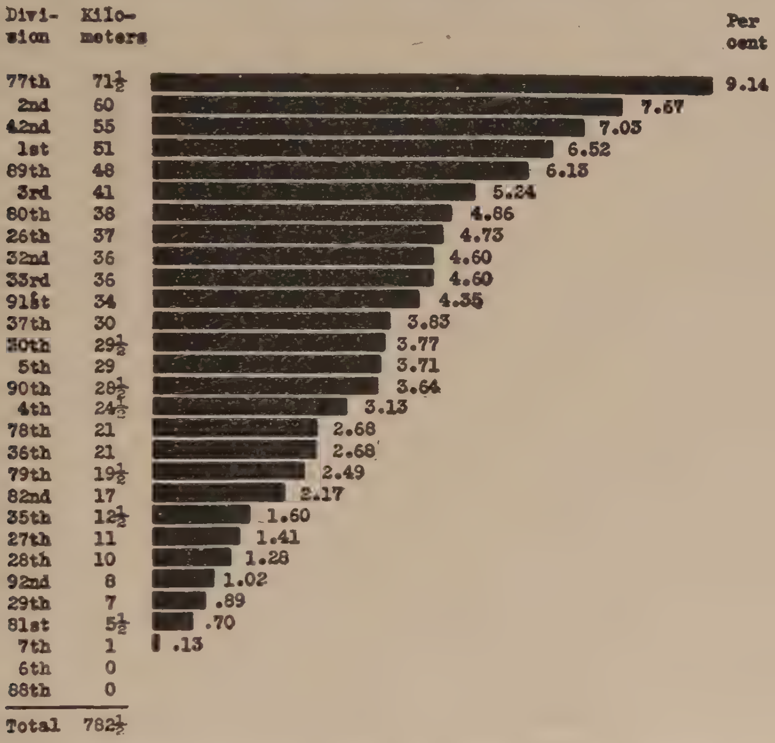
Argonne was the certainty that the great Briey iron fields held by the Germans would have to be evacuated. Germany depended upon these for much of its munition production.

General von der Marwitz, commanding the German Fifth Army, realized all these heavy responsibilities when reports came to him of American concentration before the Argonne region. He realized that a decisive victory might win for Germany a commanding position at the peace table. He knew that defeat meant the end of the war and utter disaster for the German Empire. He accordingly demanded and received replacements for divisions that needed rest so that when the American attack was launched it encountered the most formidable and seasoned troops that the German Army could muster.

This was exactly what General Pershing had anticipated. He declared that the object of the American movement was "to draw the best German divisions to our front and to consume them." That sentence expresses exactly the outcome of the titanic conflict in the dark fastnesses of the Argonne. As division after division was pulled out of the German line depleted and exhausted, fresh divisions were sent in until every available unit had been used and consumed. Upon the American side every available division was cast into the scale until at the end of forty-seven days, the Americans had virtually consumed the enemy.

It was the night of September 25th when the American troops noiselessly and with the speed of veterans took the places of the French troops which had held the line in the Argonne sector for four years. For a long time the line had been held thinly. The sector had been inactive. When the Americans entered the battle line on that night its right flank was protected by the river Meuse, and the left flank fronted and entered the dark Argonne. From right to left the order of battle was the 3d Corps, holding the line from the Meuse to Malancourt, with the 33d, 80th and 4th Divisions in the line, and the 3d Division in corps reserve; the 5th Corps, holding from Malancourt to Vauquois, with the 79th, 87th and 91st Divisions in line, and the 32d Division in corps reserve; the 1st Corps, from Vauquois to Vienne-le-Château with the 35th, 28th, and 77th Divisions in line, and the 92d Division in corps reserve; the Army Reserve at that time consisted of the 1st, 29th and 82d Divisions.

In that battle line were many green troops. A large portion of the men had never been under fire. They were to oppose an army composed wholly of veterans. Had there been another checkmate such as that which confronted the British and French at the Somme, no surprise would have been experienced by strategists. Had there been another disaster like Gallipoli, plenty of reason might have been found for it. But in the minds of the American command and the American troops, no such contingency was considered. General Pershing from his headquarters in a building that fronted the "sacred road" leading to Verdun was sole master of the operation. That room was the heart of the offensive in the Argonne battle.



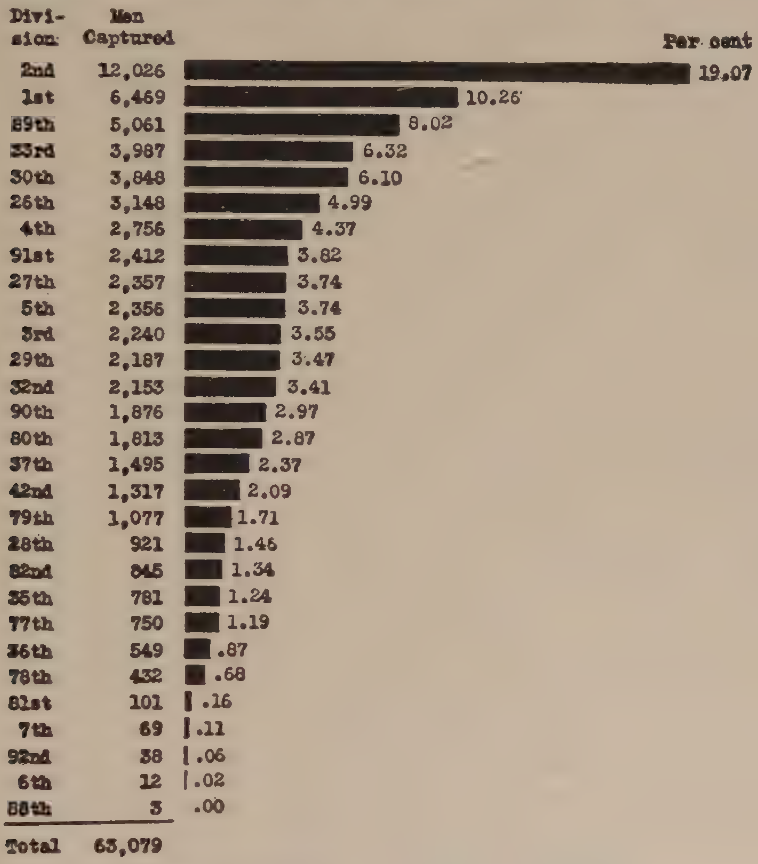
Kilometers Advanced Against the Enemy by Each Division

In Marshal Foch's plan for the grand offensive the Argonne operation was the most important factor. The French forces which were in conjunction on the left with the Americans were timed to attack at the same time on a front westward to Auberive-sur-Suippes. On the day following the inauguration of the American attack the British forces were to attack in the general direction of Cambrai. Shortly following the British blow was to come another offensive in the Ypres salient by English and Belgian forces. This in turn was to be followed by another French drive on the Aisne and the final offensive was to be a French assault towards St. Quentin. Immediately fronting the general's office was the headquarters of Major-General James G. McAndrew, chief-of-staff to General Pershing. In nearby buildings were Major-General Liggett and the staff of the 1st Corps; Major-General Bullard and the 3d Corps staff; Major-General Cameron and the 5th Corps staff.

The plan of Marshal Foch so far as it related to the greater part of the German forces in France was for the American 1st Army to smash northward through the Argonne forest, breaking the Sedan-Mezières line, while the French Fourth Army was to break the line on the other side of the Argonne forest. The British Army with a few divisions of Americans in the meantime was to smash the Hindenburg line at Cambrai. This gigantic maneuver, if successful, would push the entire German Army concentrated in that vast sector back upon the forest of Ardennes, where transportation facilities were of the scantiest.

The American attack was launched at dawn on September 26th, over a twenty-five-mile front. The terrain to be traversed by the Americans was far worse than that in which the Battle of the Wilderness was fought in the Civil War. In addition to the tangled undergrowth characterizing the Wilderness, the Argonne abounded in rocky cliffs and ravines. At the beginning of the attack, the American divisions on Dead Man's Hill (*Le Mort Homme*) overlooked the German lines along the Meuse and the Forges Woods masking defenses which the Germans believed to be absolutely impregnable.

Three, and in some places four, prepared strong defensive lines confronted the Americans. These were the Hagen Stellung, and the Volker Stellung, which comprised the principal portion of what was known as the Hindenburg Line. Back of this was the formidable Kriemhild Stellung and last of the defense lines was the Freie Stellung, which was only partly finished. The Hagen and Volker lines of defense were comparatively close together. The Kriemhild Stellung lay some distance behind the other two. These systems of defense consisted of scientifically prepared trenches; permanent emplacements reinforced by concrete, and stationed at places where their gunfire swept the terrain were concrete pillboxes. Light railways brought munitions to the guns and supplies to the troops. All the dugouts in this section were of permanent concrete construction. They were lighted with electricity and the center of miniature German villages, the product of four years' continuous perfection.



German Prisoners Captured by Each Division

The plan of campaign was for the 5th Corps to make a frontal attack over the terrain lying between the Argonne and the Meuse. The 1st Corps on the left of the wedge was to enter the Argonne and to advance up the Aire Valley. The 3d Corps on the right of the 5th Corps, was to advance between the center of the wedge and the Meuse. Six miles of forest lay between this American wedge and the 4th French Army commanded by General Gouraud. Its advance was simultaneous with ours.

During the progress of the battle General Pershing assumed the direction of both the 1st and 2d Armies. This came when new divisions were poured into the battle array. General Liggett thereupon assumed command of the 1st Army. His place as commander of the 1st Corps was taken by Major-General Joseph P. Dickman, who came from the 3d Division. General Cameron was succeeded in command of the 5th Corps by Major-General Charles P. Summerall from the 1st Division. General Bullard assumed command of the 2d Army and Major-General John L. Hines,of the 1st Division, succeeded General Bullard in command of the 3d Corps. The artillery, virtually all of French make, and the tanks were in sufficient numbers but the army was deficient in horse transport and in airplanes. As the battle went forward these deficiencies were gradually remedied. For the most part the French chauchot automatic rifle was used in lieu of machine guns and a few American divisions had the light Browning machine gun but not in sufficient quantities.

The jump-off from the trenches on the morning of the 26th was preceded by a heavy bombardment. This was accompanied by a looping machine-gun barrage at the rate of seventy-five shots a minute from each gun. Each division went over the top as follows: First came two battalions of infantry, each consisting of one thousand men; two machine-gun companies and a number of teams of engineers for wire cutting. After this wave came two battalions of infantry as support. Finally came the last two battalions of the brigade as a reserve. The second brigade of each division followed later as division reserve, maintaining its freshness and its equipment for emergency.

As the advance swept forward footbridges were thrown across brooks, wire was cut and the thinly held front line of the Germans was speedily overrun. The Volker Stellung and the Hagen Stellung were captured in most places before 2.30 in the afternoon of the 26th. The plan was that, if possible, the advance would keep right on and smash the Kriemhild Stellung. One factor alone prevented the accomplishment of this objective and that factor was the heavily fortified position of Montfaucon.

Montfaucon lay directly before the 79th Division. On the right of it, the 4th Division attacked and on the left of it attacked the 37th Division. From the commencement of its advance upon Montfaucon the 79th encountered unexpected difficulties. Twenty-five minutes had been allotted them to remove the wire in front of them. This proved to be so thick that they could not get through on schedule. The artillery barrage therefore moving on schedule time left the 79th unprotected from the machine-gun nests in the woods of Montfaucon, Cuisy and Malancourt. This enabled the Germans to hold them in check until the 27th. This delay gave to the Germans an opportunity to reform their lines and made impossible the break through which had been hoped for by General Pershing. Montfaucon fulfilled its purpose, the purpose for which the German High Command had endowed it with extraordinary equipment of manpower, guns and munitions.

Major John L. Evans, who commanded the 310th Machine Gun Battalion of the 79th Division, told of how the 79th Division was sneered at after its first five days in actual fighting because the division did not attain all its objectives. "But the division that succeeded us," Major Evans said, "did not gain a foot of ground and when that got around there was a different attitude toward the 79th." And, after that, the 79th went in along the Meuse and "showed them."

"The 79th went into a historic sector at Verdun a few days before the big drive of September 26th. We occupied Hill 304, famous as the scene of fighting during the great German drives at Verdun. But the sector had been quiet for a long time and there was a sort of gentlemen's agreement between the Germans and the French that resulted in no firing at all. It was extremely peaceful when we took hold.

"I remember one day that one of our boys sighted a Hun and it looked like a good shot to him. He had his rifle hunched up to his shoulder and was just about ready to fire when a French soldier saw him, seized him and dragged him back with horror in his eyes. He begged the American not to 'start something,' using whatever French equivalent there is for that expression.

"When we started our five-day drive our procession on the first day was hardly interfered with at all. And that took us away from our artillery. There had been a tremendous artillery preparation. So many guns had been assembled that they were almost literally hub to hub—75's and heavies. The firing started at 2 A. M. and gradually increased in volume until it was impossible to hear yourself think.

"Montfaucon was one of our objectives the first day, but we did not take it until the second. And then we went on, without artillery. That country has been so fought over that transport was impossible without new roads, and we couldn't stop to wait for new roads. So we went ahead and cleaned out machine-gun nests and German artillery and infantry while our artillery was far behind, out of range.

"That is one of the things that explains our heavy casualties. Nearly every major in the division was a casualty and I would not be surprised if the 79th lost more officers than any other division.

"The fact is that a much more determined resistance from the Germans met our advance than the American military authorities had anticipated. At any rate we came out after five days and went into a 'quiet' sector at Troyon, south of Verdun. There was considerable firing there and some raids occurred, but there was nothing to speak of.

"The final period of service of the 79th Division was along the Meuse, toward the end of October and continuing until the armistice, for about two weeks of fierce fighting and heavy punishment. This fighting was not like the 'Going over the top' of the trench warfare. Conditions had changed and we were fighting in the open and we fought almost entirely against machine-gun nests and artillery. The German machine gunners stuck by their guns. I have yet to learn of a captured German gun that did not have at least one dead Hun alongside of it.

"It was mostly Indian fighting, the troops advanced in lines, each man yards away from the next and when he found a nest it was his own private job to get rid of it and he did it with his rifle, or with a hand or rifle grenade. There was little bayonet fighting, if any.

"But it was punishing work and our boys had to pay for their victories. But I don't believe we could have done it any other way. It certainly wouldn't have been any better if we had protracted the thing for another year. Our boys were eager to get through with it; to finish it, and they preferred to play the game that way."

Major Evans explained that the operation in which the 79th Division played a part was the final one to break one of the two lines of communications of the Germans, and it succeeded.

"I believe the Allies would have captured half the German Army if the war had gone another month," he said, "and that explains the armistice terms accepted from Marshal Foch by the Germans.

"The boche is a poor fighter when he is beaten and he quits like a whipped cur as soon as he is no longer fighting a victorious fight. He just kamerades on a large scale.

"The 79th Division of National Army men fought the best in the German Army, and the American boys won. There were defects and things that went wrong, but the individual American soldier was a fine one. Officers could have been better. It takes more time to make a good officer."

Major Evans commanded the divisional machine gun battalion. It was to have been motorized, but did not get to that point. Major Evans was gassed on the 5th of November, but stuck with his command until late in the day, when he was taken to the rear.

From the 28th of September to the 4th of October, the gains of the Americans were relatively small. The time was spent mostly in preparation for another general attack. By that time, all the German defense lines except the Kriemhilde Stellung had been crossed. Upon October 4th the advance upon the Kriemhilde line was opened.

The Kriemhilde line was about two and a half miles in depth. Nowhere in the German defense system was there such a formidable array of entrenchments. Under von der Marwitz it was held from September 26th to November 11th by forty-four German and two Austrian divisions. Fifteen divisions were marked by the German High Command as shock troops of the first class. Of the total, thirteen divisions were used twice and two divisions were used three times in the vain effort to hold the American assault.

SERGEANT YORK'S WORLD-FAMOUS EXPLOIT

It was in the Argonne on October 8th that the greatest individual feat of heroism of the war was performed. Sergeant Alvin C. York, a Tennessee mountaineer, of Company G, 328th Infantry, of the 82d Division, single-handed killed twenty-five Germans, captured 132 German officers and men, put thirty-five German machine-gun nests out of commission and smashed a counter-attack by an entire German battalion upon the American position on Hill 223. For that extraordinary feat he was awarded the Distinguished Service Cross, the French Croix de Guerre with palm, the Congressional Medal of Honor, which is the highest distinction bestowed by the United States Government, and was signally honored by the State of Tennessee with a remarkable reception.

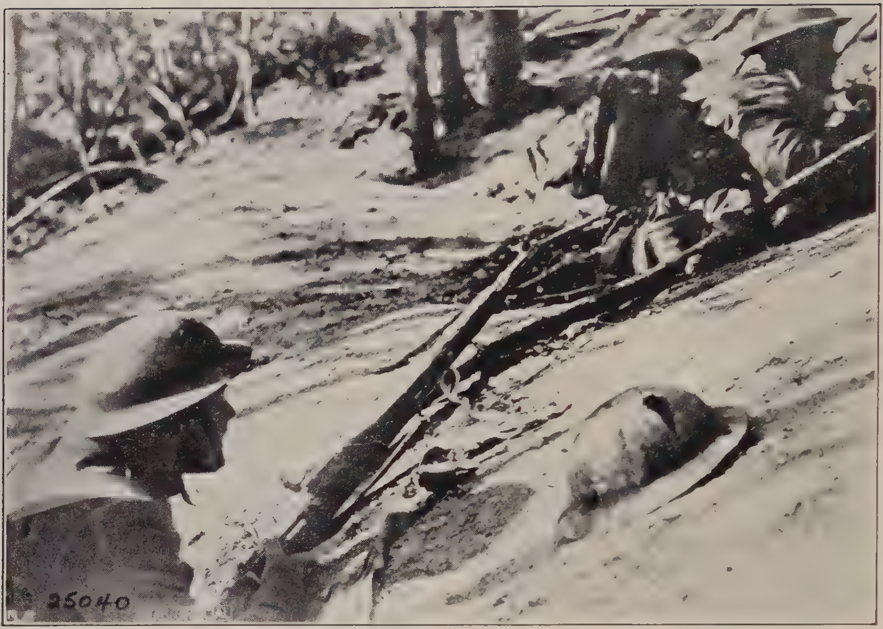
Sergeant York was a conscientious objector to war when hostilities were declared. He was a deacon of the Church of Christ and Christian Unity, a sect that holds the belief that it is wrong to kill even in war. His religious scruples against participation in the war were overcome when officers of his company called to his attention this excerpt from the Book of Ezekiel:

> Son of man, speak to the children of thy people, and say unto them, When I bring the sword upon a land, if the people of the land take a man of their coasts and send him for their watchman; if when he seeth the sword come upon the land he blow the trumpet and warn the people, then whosoever heareth the sound of the trumpet and taketh not warning;

U. S. Official Photograph.

IN THE ARGONNE BATTLE

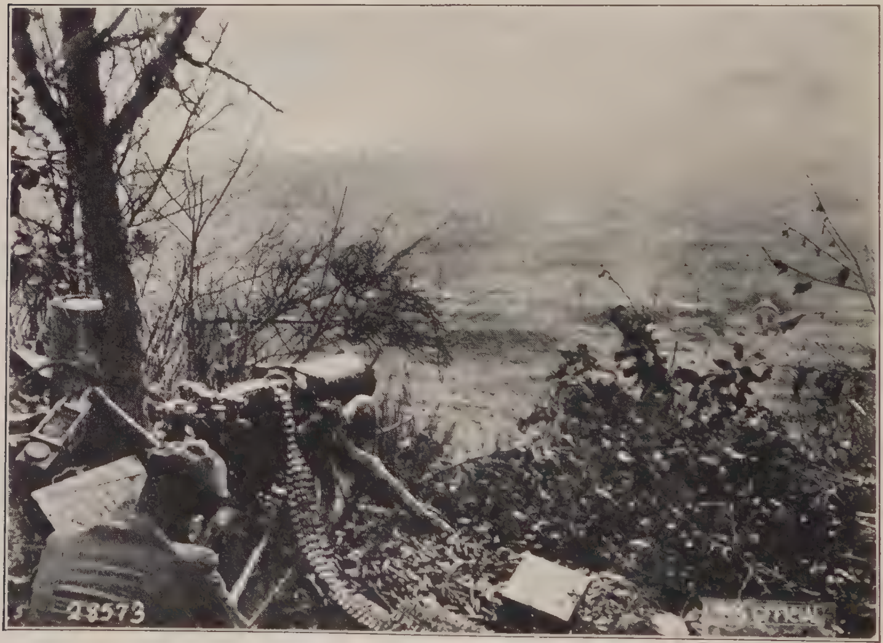
Men of the 30th Infantry, 77th Division advancing and firing rifle grenades during the campaign in the Argonne forest, October 31, 1918.



U. S. Official Photograph.

THE ADVANCE UP HILL 240

Doughboys of the 18th Infantry, 1st Division, advancing up the slope near Exermont by digging in at intervals. They gained the summit in the face of a heavy rifle and machine-gun fire, Ardennes, October 11, 1918.



U. S. Official Photograph.

THE HEIGHTS OF THE ARGONNE

The hill on which this captured German machine gun in its camouflaged emplacement stands, one kilometer north of Grand Pré, was the scene of the most desperate German resistance, four American charges being necessary to capture it.

and if the sword come and take him away, then his blood shall be upon his own head. But if the watchman see the sword come, and blow not the trumpet and the people be not warned; if the sword come and take any person from among them, he is taken away in his iniquity; but his blood shall I require at the watchman's hand.

He brought his religious convictions into the army with him.

"I couldn't always keep track of Sunday," he said. "All days looked alike to the Germans, and pretty soon it got so that all days looked alike to us, but every time I got a chance I went to religious services, mostly Protestant, but when I couldn't get to the Protestant I went to the Catholic or to the Y. M. C. A. or the Salvation Army. I can say when I get home that I split my religious duties and my fightin' duties as even as I could."

His story of his immortal exploit was told by him with the simplicity of a child. He described how his company was formed for attack in their positions on Hill 223 at six o'clock on the morning of October 8th. The objective of the company was the railway two kilometers distant. The Americans were obliged to cross an open valley and a stream to gain possession of the road.

"Half of the men had dropped before we were half way across," said Sergeant York, "and machine-gun fire was beating on us from all sides. There were Germans all around us, but we pushed on because our orders were to get there and take the railway, and we had to do it.

"We made a detour across the valley until we got behind a nest of the enemy, from which the crew of a machine gun had been picking off a right smart of our boys. It was very bushy and we were within two or three yards of the gun before we realized it. One of our men shot at them, and he sure started something. They fired on us from every direction. Our boys either ran or fell on their stomachs, and the Germans did the same. I sat right where I was, and it seemed to me that every machine gun the Germans had was shooting at me. All this time, though, I was using my rifle, and they was beginning to feel the effect of it, because I was shootin' pretty good.

"One of our boys yelled at me that it was impossible for us to get the best of the Germans, and I yelled back for him to shut up, because I knew that one American could lick ten Germans if he kept his wits. I turned in time to see a German lieutenant, with six or seven men, charging up the hill at me with fixed bayonets. They were only twenty yards from me when I pulled my automatic and knocked them off, one after another.

"There was a major with the first bunch of Germans we come across, and he was lyin' on his stomach to keep from gettin' hit by his own machine-gun bullets, and he called to me in English that if I would stop shootin' he would make them all surrender, so I did. Then I called all our boys and we herded the Germans in front of us and started back toward our lines. I walked among four German officers and had our wounded bring up the rear. Once the major asked me how many men I had, and I told him I had a-plenty.

"On our way back we walked into two or three machine-gun nests, but every time the major told me if I wouldn't shoot he would make them surrender, and I didn't shoot, and he did. He would order the gunners to quit shooting, and then he would blow a whistle and everybody would get in line and away we would go, and we had 132 of the Germans when we got back to our own people.

"We lost six boys, though, and three others were badly wounded."

Twenty days were spent by the American Army in piercing that tremendous obstacle. The Germans, because of their four years' occupation of the forest knew in advance every position where the Americans might find a foothold. Their artillery raked these defenses constantly and searchingly. In addition, they had planted machine-gun nests behind rocky barriers placed so skilfully that every exposed foot of land was swept by a machine-gun fire. When these nests were carried by assault, other German machine-gun positions swept them and made them untenable. After the second line of machine-gun nests was captured, German artillery was in position to rake these positions and the combination of defense began all over again.

THE LOST BATTALION

The record for the greatest advance through the Argonne was made by the 77th Division, comprised of National Army recruits from New York City. On the night of October 10th, this division emerged from the north side of the Argonne forest. It was the first division to break through. Throughout its advance it was always ahead of its objectives. During this period of the Seventy-seventh's advance Major Whittlesey, and the celebrated Lost Battalion of the Seventy-seventh, made its stand against the German forces that completely surrounded it. The battalion was rescued after it had fought the enemy to a standstill.

The heroic defense of the Lost Battalion of the 77th Division was one of the stirring episodes of the drive. But there was another episode, quite as heroic and thrilling, another "Lost Battalion" completely surrounded by Germans.

It was on October 15, 1918, the second day of the American Army's second great push in the Meuse-Argonne battle. On the 14th the 60th Infantry, as a part of a general advance all along the front, the 1st Battalion leading, had captured the town of Cunel with great loss and had driven on to a position in the woods about a kilometer north of the town. This locality was of great importance to the enemy. It was one of the strong points of the famous Kriemhilde Stellung. The town of Cunel was at the apex of a triangular-shaped system of woods that formed a redoubt protecting the Andon Valley, which had been one of the chief German lines of communication.

At the apex of these woods was the Bois de la Pultiere, covering about a square kilometer. Then, north of a small gap in the woods, there stretched the Bois des Rappes, a much larger tract, to the northwestward, and the Claire Chenes, a narrow, wedge-shaped woods to the northeastward. It was a formation which enabled the Germans to make a stubborn fight.

Early on the morning of the 15th, Colonel Frank B. Hawkins, commanding the 60th, moved up into the Bois de la Pultiere to within a stone's throw of where his men were fighting their way forward through a tangle of trees, "We must reach the northern edge of the Bois des Rappes," he said.

To the 2d Battalion, commanded by Major Baldwin, fell the task. It was that battalion which had suffered least during the preceding several days. In the haze of breaking day Major Baldwin directed his companies to their positions, and assembling his battalion headquarters, consisting mostly of his runners, moved forward.

At the head of those runners, as liaison officer, marched Second Lieutenant David Hochstein, the eminent violinist. He had gone scarcely 300 yards at the head of his men, the battalion runners, when a shell exploded almost at his feet. He was killed.

This little battalion headquarters group pressed on, passed the gap between the two woods, and entered the Bois des Rappes, skirting an enemy machine gun, and putting one out of action there. About half way through the woods they came upon two German field pieces, still hot from use. Then they were joined by a detachment of about sixty men and three officers of the 61st Infantry, a part of the same brigade, who had fought their way through more to the westward.

Finally, late in the morning, the combined detachment found itself on the coveted objective, the northern edge of the Bois des Rappes, overlooking the German line of communications in the Andon Valley at Aincreville. Major Baldwin began to look around for the companies of his battalion. But they were not in sight. Taking his adjutant with him, he reconnoitred to the eastern edge of the woods and saw a section of German artillery galloping several hundred yards away in the direction from which he had come. At the same time his adjutant saw a reserve skirmish line moving toward them over a knoll about 400 yards away. Seizing a rifle, the adjutant, First Lieutenant O. K. Morrison of Texas, picked off four or five of them before they could take cover. Then the two officers rejoined their men.

They found several disconcerting bits of information. A patrol sent to the western edge of the woods reported back that their were no friendly troops in that vicinity and that the place was thick with Germans, who were filtering in and out of the woods. A patrol sent back through the woods brought back word that the woods were full of Germans behind them.

"Well," said the major to his officers, "we have gained our objective and we are going to hang on to it until we are properly relieved or ordered to give it up."

A runner was sent back with this information, but he was either killed or taken prisoner, for the message did not reach the regiment.

They learned later that all attempts by the bulk of the infantry to get from the Bois de la Pultiere into the Bois des Rappes were stopped by a murderous cross-fire from a score of machine guns in the southern point of the Claire Chenes, a small wood to the east of the advance, and which commanded the narrow strip of clearing which had to be traversed in getting into the Bois des Rappes. It was not until several days later after the Claire Chenes had been conquered that successful attacks upon the Bois des Rappes were possible. It has never been explained how Major Baldwin and his small party chanced to get across that gap.

With the coming of dusk the major and his small party fully realized their desperate position. On every side they could see the enemy filtering in and around them. By this time the Germans had located their position, but evidently were uncertain as to their force. All afternoon the Germans had sprayed the edge of the woods with machine-gun fire, killing several of the major's detachment.

After dark, when his men could be moved without being seen by the fringe of machine gunners who hemmed them in, Major Baldwin distributed his small party into a triangle formation, with each man crouched in a shell hole or a fox hole of his own making.

Captain Theodore Schmidt of the 61st Infantry and his two lieutenants, James E. Cole and L. A. Rock, guarded two of the sides of this triangle; Major Baldwin and Lieutenant Rex P. Enochs guarded the other. The battalion adjutant and another lieutenant, Tom Cox, were started back under cover of darkness to report the situation to the regimental commander.

Step by step, with luminous compasses in one hand and cocked pistols in the other, the two officers worked their way back, frequently under fire. Once they stumbled into a German machine-gun nest. Halted and queried in German by the gunners, the two Americans let out a yell, and fired their pistols in the faces of the Germans and dashed over guns and gunners into the thicket beyond, where they lay low and waited. It was daylight before the two messengers reached the American line, skirting the northern edge of the Bois de la Pultiere.

Meanwhile the little group in the thicket fared badly. The officers went from man to man and whispered instructions: "Let no German get through this line. Use the bayonet. Don't shoot unless you have to. Shooting will draw fire."

Use the bayonet they did, on several venturesome Germans, who crept within striking distance. Nor did the defenders come through the night scatheless. The morning showed gaps in the line.

It was late in the morning that the first words from their own lines reached the beleaguered detachment. It told the major to give up the objective and fight his way back.

But getting out proved even more arduous than getting in. The major found he had lost almost a third of his men; most of them were killed. The few wounded they were able to take back with them. In single file, with a small advance guard, the little party zigzagged its way back through the woods, finally entering its friendly lines about noon, with but few casualties.

GENERAL PERSHING'S STORY OF THE FIGHTING

Concerning the later phase of the battle, General Pershing made this formal report:

> On October 4th the attack was renewed all along our front. The 3d Corps tilting to the left followed the Brieulles-Cunel road; our 5th Corps took Gesnes while the 1st Corps advanced for over two miles along the irregular valley of the Aire river and in the wooded hills of the Argonne that bordered the river, used by the enemy with all his art and weapons of defense. This sort of fighting continued against an enemy striving to hold every foot of ground and whose very strong counter-attacks challenged us at every point. On the 7th the 1st Corps captured Chatel-

Chehery and continued along the river to Cornay. On the east of Meuse sector one of the two Divisions co-operating with the French captured Consenvoye and the Haumont Woods. On the 9th the 5th Corps, in its progress up the Aire, took Fleville, and the 3d Corps which had continuous fighting against odds was working its way through Brieulles and Cunel. On the 10th we had cleared the Argonne forest of the enemy.

It was now necessary to constitute a second army, and on October 9th the immediate command of the First Army was turned over to Lieutenant-General Hunter Liggett. The command of the Second Army, whose divisions occupied a sector in the Woevre, was given to Lieutenant-General Robert L. Bullard, who had been commander of the 1st Division and then of the 3d Corps. Major-General Dickman was transferred to the command of the 1st Corps, while the 5th Corps was placed under Major-General Charles P. Summerall, who had recently commanded the 1st Division. Major-General John L. Hines, who had gone rapidly up from regimental to division commander, was assigned to the 3d Corps. These four officers had been in France from the early days of the expedition and had learned their lessons in the school of practical warfare.

Our constant pressure against the enemy brought day by day more prisoners, mostly survivors from machine-gun nests captured in fighting at close quarters. On October 18th there was very fierce fighting in the Caures Woods east of the Meuse and in the Ormont Woods. On the 14th the 1st Corps took St. Juvin, and the 5th Corps, in hand-to-hand encounters, entered the formidable Kriemhilde line, where the enemy had hoped to check us indefinitely. Later the 5th Corps penetrated further the Kriemhilde line, and the 1st Corps took Champigneulles and the important town of Grandpre. Our dogged offensive was wearing down the enemy, who continued desperately to throw his best troops against us, thus weakening his line in front of our Allies and making their advance less difficult.

HELPING THE FRENCH IN BELGIUM

Meanwhile we were not only able to continue the battle, but our 37th and 91st Divisions were hastily withdrawn from our front and dispatched to help the French Army in Belgium. Detraining in the neighborhood of Ypres, these divisions advanced by rapid stages to the fighting line and were assigned to adjacent French corps. On October 31st, in continuation of the Flanders offensive, they attacked and methodically broke down all enemy resistance. On November 3d the 37th had completed its mission in dividing the enemy across the Escaut River and firmly established itself along the east bank included in the division zone of action. By a clever flanking movement troops of the 91st Division captured Spitaals Bosschen, a difficult wood extending across the central part of the division sector, reached the Escaut, and penetrated into the town of Audenarde. These divisions received high commendation from their corps commanders for their dash and energy.

THE LAST PHASE OF THE ARGONNE BATTLE

On the 23d the 3d and 5th Corps pushed northward to the level of Bantheville. While we continued to press forward and throw back the enemy's violent counter-attacks with great loss to him, a regrouping of our forces was under way for the final assault. Evidences of loss of morale by the enemy gave our men more confidence in attack and more fortitude in enduring the fatigue of incessant effort and the hardships of very inclement weather.

With comparatively well-rested divisions, the final advance in the Meuse-Argonne front was begun on November 1st. Our increased artillery force acquitted itself magnificently in support of the advance, and the enemy broke before the determined infantry, which, by its persistent fighting of the past weeks and the dash of this attack, had overcome his will to resist. The 3d Corps took Aincreville, Doulcon, and Andevanne, and the 5th Corps took Landres et St. Georges and pressed through successive lines of resistance to Bayonville and Chennery. On the 2d the 1st Corps joined in the movement, which now became an impetuous onslaught that could not be stayed.

On the 3d advance troops surged forward in pursuit, some by motor trucks, while the artillery pressed along the country roads close behind. The 1st Corps reached Authe and Chatillon-Sur-Bar, the 5th Corps, Fosse and Nouart, and the 3d Corps Halles, penetrating the enemy's line to a depth of twelve miles. Our large caliber guns had advanced and were skilfully brought into position to fire upon the important lines at Montmedy, Longuyon, and Conflans. Our 3d Corps crossed the Meuse on the 5th and the other corps, in the full confidence that the day was theirs, eagerly cleared the way of machine guns as they swept northward, maintaining complete co-ordination throughout. On the 6th, a division of the 1st Corps reached a point on the Meuse opposite Sedan, twenty-five miles from our line of departure. The strategical goal which was our highest hope was gained. We had cut the enemy's main line of communications, and nothing but surrender or an armistice could save his army from complete disaster.

In all forty enemy divisions had been used against us in the Meuse-Argonne battle. Between September 26th and November 6th we took 26,059 prisoners and 468 guns on this front. Our divisions engaged were the 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, 26th, 28th, 29th, 32d, 33d, 35th, 37th, 42d, 77th, 78th, 79th, 80th, 82d, 89th, 90th, and 91st. Many of our divisions remained in line for a length of time that required nerves of steel, while others were sent in again after only a few days of rest. The 1st, 5th, 26th, 42d, 77th, 80th, 89th, and 90th were in the line twice. Although some of the divisions were fighting their first battle, they soon became equal to the best.

OPERATIONS EAST OF THE MEUSE

On the three days preceding November 10th, the 3d, the 2d Colonial, and the 17th French Corps fought a difficult struggle through the Meuse

Hills south of Stenay and forced the enemy into the plain. Meanwhile, my plans for further use of the American forces contemplated an advance between the Meuse and the Moselle in the direction of Longwy by the 1st Army, while, at the same time, the 2d Army should assure the offensive toward the rich coal fields of Briey. These operations were to be followed by an offensive toward Chateau-Salins east of the Moselle, thus isolating Metz. Accordingly, attacks on the American front had been ordered and that of the 2d Army was in progress on the morning of November 11th, when instructions were received that hostilities should cease at 11 o'clock A. M.

At this momenet the line of the American sector, from right to left, began at Port-Sur-Seille, thence across the Moselle to Vandieres and through the Woevre to Bezonvaux in the foothills of the Meuse, thence along to the foothills and through the northern edge of the Woevre forests to the Meuse at Mouzay, thence along the Meuse connecting with the French under Sedan.

For the forty-seven days of battle, progress was accomplished slowly and at terrific cost. The number of guns employed to dislodge the enemy numbered 2,417, firing 4,214,000 rounds of artillery ammunition. Eight hundred and forty airplanes dropped 100 tons of explosives on the lines of the enemy and 324 tanks waddled over the crude roads and over the waste spaces dealing death before them. In the American advance, 150 villages and towns were liberated, 16,059 prisoners were captured, 468 artillery pieces, 2,864 machine guns and 177 trench mortars were taken at a total cost of 120,000 casualties to the Americans.

COLORED TROOPS IN ACTION

The divisions participating in the drive as divisions were the 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, 26th, 28th, 29th, 32d, 33d, 35th, 37th, 42d, 77th, 80th, 82d, 89th, 90th and 91st, a total of nineteen divisions. The 1st, 5th, 26th, 42d, 77th, 80th, 89th and 90th Divisions were in the line twice in the course of the forty-seven days' campaign. A number of other divisions were used for purposes of replacement.

Shoulder to shoulder with the best shock troops were the colored soldiers of the 92d and 93d Divisions. Decorations singly and for entire units were awarded to the heroes of these divisions. The 369th, 370th, 371st and 372d Infantry Regiments of the 93d Division were brigaded with the French and performed heroically throughout their service. The 369th was with the Fourth French Army, the 370th with the Second, the 371st and 372d with the Thirteenth French Army Corps. The battle service of these regiments was from July 1st to November 11th. The 92d, known as the "Buffalo" Division, was so eager for service that it overran its objectives in the Argonne.

The total number of colored soldiers participating in the war was nearly 400,000; over 200,000 served in France, Germany and Italy; colored commissioned officers numbered over 1,200, many of them college graduates.

Colored men served in all branches of the military establishment, cavalry, infantry, artillery (field and coast), signal corps (radio, or wireless telegraphy, etc.), medical corps, aviation corps (ground section), ambulance and hospital corps, sanitary and ammunition trains, stevedore regiments, labor battalions, depot brigades, engineers' regiments, and served as regimental clerks, surveyors, draftsmen, etc.

Negro soldiers fought with especial distinction in France in the Forest of Argonne, at Château-Thierry, in Belleau Wood, St. Mihiel district, Champagne sector, Metz, Vosges, etc., winning praise from French and American commanders. Colored troops were nearest the Rhine when the armistice was signed.

Entire regiments of colored troops cited for exceptional valor and decorated with the French Croix de Guerre—369th, 371st and 372d; groups of officers and men of the 365th, 366th, 368th and 370th were likewise decorated; first battalion of the 367th also decorated with the Croix de Guerre.

Many individuals, like Harry Johnson, Needham Roberts and William Butler, were awarded Croix de Guerre and Distinguished Service Cross, and scores of officers earned promotions in their military units.

Sixty colored men served as chaplains; over three hundred and fifty as Y. M. C. A. secretaries; numerous colored men were attached to the War Community Service in cities adjacent to army camps.

CHAPTER XVIII

SAVING THE WOUNDED AND SICK

NO branch of military service courted greater triumph during the war than the medical organization. It cared for the men scientifically in cantonment and in the battle line. Sewers, latrines, bathing facilities, drinking water, camp epidemics, disease from unavoidable exposure to the elements, inhalation of poisonous gas and wounds on the battlefield all came under the ever watchful service of the Medical Department.

More than fifteen per cent of all the physicians of the United States enlisted in active service as medical officers of the army. Major-General William C. Gorgas and his associates worked out plans of sanitation, health preservation and care for the wounded which established a new record unprecedented in warfare.

Secretary of War Baker summarized the wonderful work achieved by this department of the army in this formal statement:

> It must be a source of the deepest gratification to the country, as it is to me, that the health of the army has been so excellent, not only as compared with the army in other wars, but also as compared with the civilian population.
>
> For the year ending August 30, 1918, the death rate from disease among troops in the United States was 6.4 per thousand; in the American Expeditionary Force it was 4.7; for the combined forces it was 5.9. The male civilian death rate for the age groups most nearly corresponding to the army age is substantially the same as the rate in the American Expeditionary Force. What this low figure means in lives saved is shown by comparing it with the rate of 65 per thousand in the Union Army during the Civil War, and the rate of twenty-six per thousand in the American Army during the Spanish War. Pneumonia, either primary or secondary to measles caused 56 per cent of all deaths among troops and 63 per cent of the deaths from disease.
>
> About the middle of September the influenza epidemic which had been prevalent in Europe gained a foothold in this country. Begin-

ning in the New England States it gradually spread south and west until practically the entire country suffered under its scourge. Naturally the camps and cantonments, with their closer concentration of men, provided especially favorable ground for the spread of the epidemic. In the eight weeks from September 14th to November 8th there were reported among all troops in the United States over 316,000 cases of influenza and over 53,000 cases of pneumonia. Of the 20,500 deaths during this period, probably 19,800 were the result of the epidemic. During eight weeks the epidemic caused more than twice as many deaths among troops in the United States as occurred during the entire year preceding the epidemic, and almost as many as the battle fatalities during the eighteen months of the war up to October, 1918. By the middle of November it was apparent that the epidemic had spent its force. The number of deaths was still above normal, but was showing a steady decline. The American Expeditionary Force suffered somewhat from the epidemic, but far less severely than the troops in the United States.

A vigorous campaign has been waged by the War Department for combating the great social evil of venereal disease. The program of attack has included the repression of prostitution and the liquor traffic in zones near cantonments, provision for proper social surroundings and recreation, education of soldiers and civilians in regard to venereal diseases, prophylactic measures against them, and prompt medical care. The Commission on Training Camp Activities has been very active in carrying forward this campaign and has received splendid co-operation from local authorities, and local and national health officials.

During the year ended August 30, 1918, among the troops in the United States the number of venereal admissions to sick report was 126 per thousand men. This figure includes duplicates and does not show the number of men sick at any given time. The great majority of these cases, moreover, were contracted before entering the army. Large increments of new recruits from the draft were generally followed by great increases in the admissions to sick reports on account of venereal diseases. A special study of all cases of venereal diseases reported at five typical camps (Dix, Lee, Meade, Upton, and Pike) during a typical period of thirteen weeks (June 22d to September 20th) shows that ninety-eight per cent of all cases were contracted before enlistment and only two per cent after enlistment.

Among the troops in France, where there were no recruits fresh from civil life, the record was even better than at home, and conditions improved steadily and rapidly until, in September of the year 1919, the cases were less than one among each thousand men. This is a showing unequaled in the records of any other army of modern times.

Figures as to the health of our soldiers, bear eloquent tribute to the efficiency of the Medical Department of the army. With the invaluable assistance of the American Red Cross, it found itself in a position to render great service from the very beginning. In this connection it is significant to note that the first casualties in the American Expeditionary Force occurred in the Medical Corps, when, on September 4, 1917, one officer and three men were killed and three officers and six men wounded in a German airplane attack on one of our base hospitals.

On November 11, 1918, the army had eighty fully equipped hospitals in this country with a capacity of 120,000 patients.

There were 104 base hospitals and thirty-one evacuation hospitals in the American Expeditionary Force and one evacuation hospital in Siberia. In addition, a special hospital for head surgery, an optical unit, and eight auxiliary units operated abroad. The capacity of the hospitals attached to the Expeditionary Force is shown in the following table:

CAPACITY OF ARMY HOSPITALS IN THE AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE, NOVEMBER 11, 1918.

	Standard capacity.	Emergency capacity.
Base hospitals	**121,261**	**195,324**
Camp hospitals	**22,159**	**24,880**
Total	**143,420**	**220,204**

Army hospitals in the United States cared for 1,407,191 patients during the war; those with the American Expeditionary Force cared for 755,354, a total of 2,162,545.

In addition to furnishing its medical personnel for the operation of the above units, the War Department, through the chief surgeon, detailed 931 American officers to serve with the British forces and a further 169 for service in base hospitals that we turned over to the British. Furthermore, several ambulance sections have been operating with the Italian Army.

In order to provide properly trained personnel for the medical needs of the army outlined above, training camps were opened on June 1, 1917, at Fort Oglethorpe, Fort Benjamin Harrison, and Fort Riley. The need for similar facilities for colored officers and men was quickly recognized, and on July 21st a camp was opened at Fort Des Moines for the training of colored personnel. Simultaneously, special intensive training was given to all army medical officers, 1,724 receiving instruction in war surgery and six hundred in roentgenology.

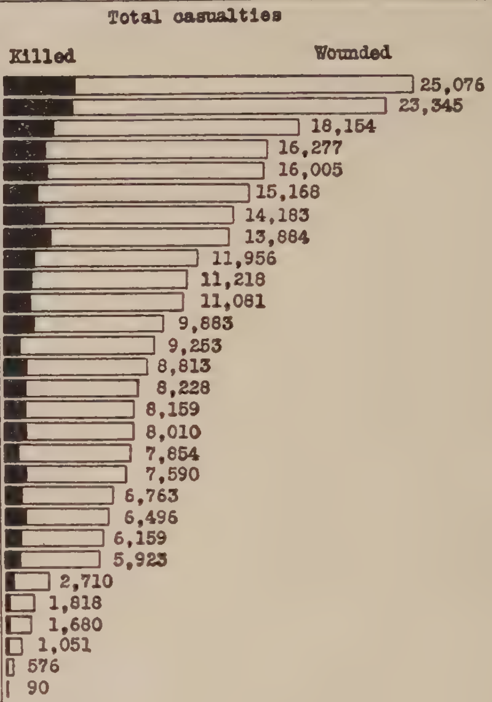
The vital importance of good teeth has been fully realized by the department. On November 11, 1918, there were 4,429 dentists in the army and 5,372 in the Reserve Corps not yet called to active duty.

Up to the end of July about fifteen per cent of the entire civilian medical profession of the United States went into active duty as medical officers of the army. Probably no working force has ever been organized which contained more distinguished men of a single profession than were enrolled in the Medical Department of the United States Army.

No praise is too great for these men and their many brothers who freely gave themselves to the country in the time of her need, sacrificing homes and positions that they might render their greatest service to the cause of democracy.

The answer made by the graduate nurses in this country has been no less splendid than that of the doctors. When the armistice was signed an adequate staff of nurses was on duty at every army hospital in the United States. Eight thousand five hundred and ten were on duty in Europe, 1,400 were mobilized and awaiting transportation overseas, and 2,000 more were available for immediate foreign service. The part played by these heroic women can best be told by our sons and brothers when they return from the battlefields; they, and only they, can pay proper tribute to the love and devotion with which our American nurses watched over them and cared for them.

Division	Battle deaths	Wounded	Total casualties
2nd	4,419	20,657	25,076
1st	4,204	19,141	23,345
3rd	3,102	15,052	18,154
28th	2,531	13,746	16,277
42nd	2,713	13,292	16,005
26th	2,168	13,000	15,168
4th	2,587	11,596	14,183
32nd	2,898	10,986	13,884
77th	1,990	9,966	11,956
27th	1,791	9,427	11,218
30th	1,652	9,429	11,081
5th	1,908	7,975	9,883
33rd	1,002	8,251	9,253
89th	1,419	7,394	8,813
82nd	1,338	6,890	8,228
78th	1,359	6,800	8,159
90th	1,387	6,623	8,010
35th	960	6,894	7,854
79th	1,396	6,194	7,590
80th	1,141	5,622	6,763
91st	1,390	5,106	6,496
29th	940	5,219	6,159
37th	992	4,931	5,923
36th	591	2,119	2,710
7th	302	1,516	1,818
92nd	185	1,495	1,680
81st	250	801	1,051
6th	97	479	576
88th	27	63	90
Total	46,739	230,664	
Other units	2,170	6,471	
Grand total	48,909	237,135	



Casualties Suffered by Each Division

During the period of the war over $500,000,000 was made available for the uses of the Medical Department. The expenditure of this vast sum was not merely a matter of placing contracts and awaiting deliveries. New sources of supply had to be created to meet the unprecedented demand for surgical instruments, medical and surgical supplies, bedding and beds and anæsthetics, and everything possible had to be done to standardize all staple articles so as to reduce manufacturing difficulties to a minimum. Under the direction of Major-General William C. Gorgas the Medical Department worked out a most satisfactory program.

The War Department has believed that preventive as well as curative duties should be performed by its medical personnel. Accordingly, eight "survey parties" have been maintained to inspect all stocks of food and the manner of serving meals to troops in camps or hospitals. Provision was also made for the education of cooks and bakers in the science of their trades.

During the first fifteen months of the war, all matters pertaining to the protection of troops against poison gases were under the charge of the surgeon-general, who devised, contracted for, and produced during this period over one and a half million gas masks. The magnitude of this work became so great, however, that a special "Chemical Warfare Service" was created to handle both the defensive end, formerly under the Medical Corps, and the offensive branch, theretofore under the Engineers.

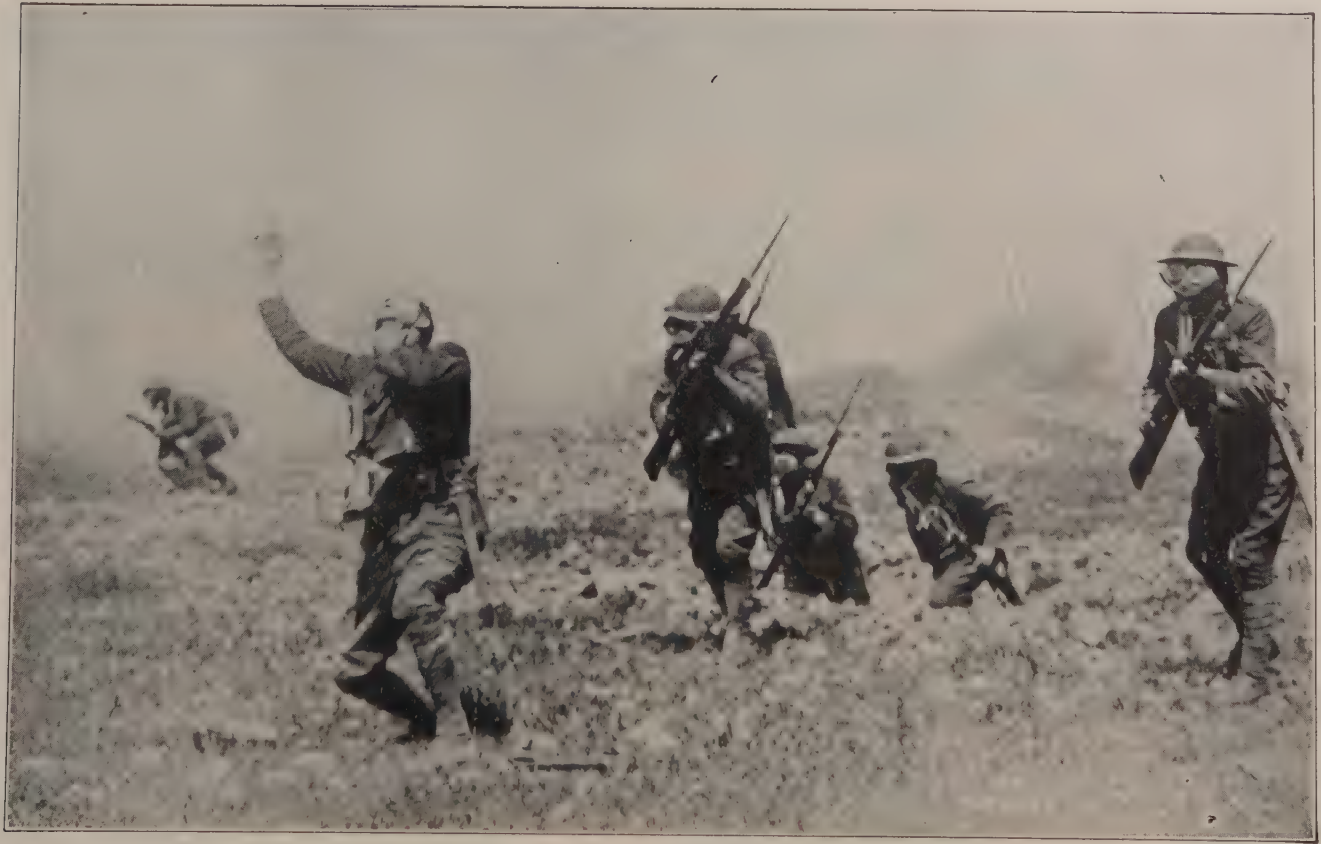
One of the most important activities under the direction of the Medical Department has been the reconstruction work planned for soldiers, sailors, and marines. At ports of debarkation, arrangements have been made for the rapid classification and assignment of returned sick and injured to the nineteen general hospitals selected for reconstruction work. At each of the hospitals courses of instruction are conducted which are adapted to the physical and educational qualifications of the men. These courses range from the most elementary instruction in the "three R's" to highly specialized trades; all of them, however, have the single purpose of enabling the man to overcome the handicaps resulting from his wounds and to resume his place as a productive member of society as speedily as possible. This work is being prosecuted in the greatest variety of subjects at Walter Reed Hospital, Washington, D. C., where important experiments are being made and where special attention is being given to fitting men with effective artificial legs, arms, and hands.

At the beginning of the war there were only 750 officers, 393 nurses, and 6,619 enlisted men belonging to the Medical Department. In November, 1918, the corresponding figures were 39,363 officers, 21,344 nurses, and 245,652 enlisted men. During the period of greatest expansion, the department's program was guided by Major-General William C. Gorgas, the surgeon-general. After many years of conspicuous service in the army, Major-General Gorgas has retired in accordance with the provisions of the law, and was succeeded by Major-General Merritte W. Ireland, chief surgeon of the American Expeditionary Force.

Under the authority and direction of Congress complete arrangements for rehabilitation and vocational training of disabled men were made by the Federal Board of Vocational Education.

Lieutenant-Colonel Strong of the Army Medical Corps informed the House Military Affairs Committee on January 23, 1919, that three thousand of the total American combat force of 1,500,000 had lost either an arm or a leg. Figures given by Dr. James Munroe before the American Institute of Mining Engineers on February 18th estimated the number of disabled soldiers then in the United States at fifty thousand. Of these, he said, between five and ten per cent had lost limbs and forty-one per cent had contracted tuberculosis. These estimates, he stated, were given on the authority of the surgeon-general, and were made public in an address on the "Use of Cripples in Industry." Subsequent official advices gave the total of major amputation cases in the United States to the end of March as 3,034, a figure which harmonizes approximately with the estimate of Dr. Munroe. Of these 3,034 there were 600 arm amputations and 1,708 leg amputations. The remaining 726 were of hands, feet, and two or more fingers. A conservative deduction from all the figures given above would indicate that there have been about one hundred thousand cases of disablement, including both those returned from overseas and those still in hospitals abroad; that twenty thousand were victims of tuberculosis, and approximately three thousand had lost limbs, in whole or in part; that some twenty-five thousand are now [April, 1919] in the United States suffering from various kinds of disablement, including blindness; and another fifty thousand still abroad.

The objects sought at such an institution as the Walter Reed Hospital were explained by Major B. T. Baldwin, Chief of the Educational Service, as curative and vocational, including the physical restoration of the disabled man, the realization on his part that he is again a social being and must function as such, and the educational development of the patient while confined to the hospital. In the first category falls the teaching of a man who has lost one arm to use the other, and his equipping with an artificial limb, with special



U. S. Official Photograph.

THE DEADLY GERMAN GAS

An American soldier who has lost his respirator in an attack on the German trenches dying of the choking deadly gas. The Germans were the first to employ gas in violation of all rules of civilized warfare.

U S. Official Photograph.

THE RED CROSS IN THE FIELD

Ambulances with wounded arriving at American Military Field Hospital Number 1, Neuilly, France, June 7, 1918.

© *Committee on Public Information.* *From Western Newspaper Union.*

IN A Y. M. C. A. HUT BEHIND THE LINES

As soon as his tour of duty in the trenches ended the soldier made for the "Y" hut as the nearest approach to home and comfort.

appliances suited to the man's special need. Major Baldwin said:

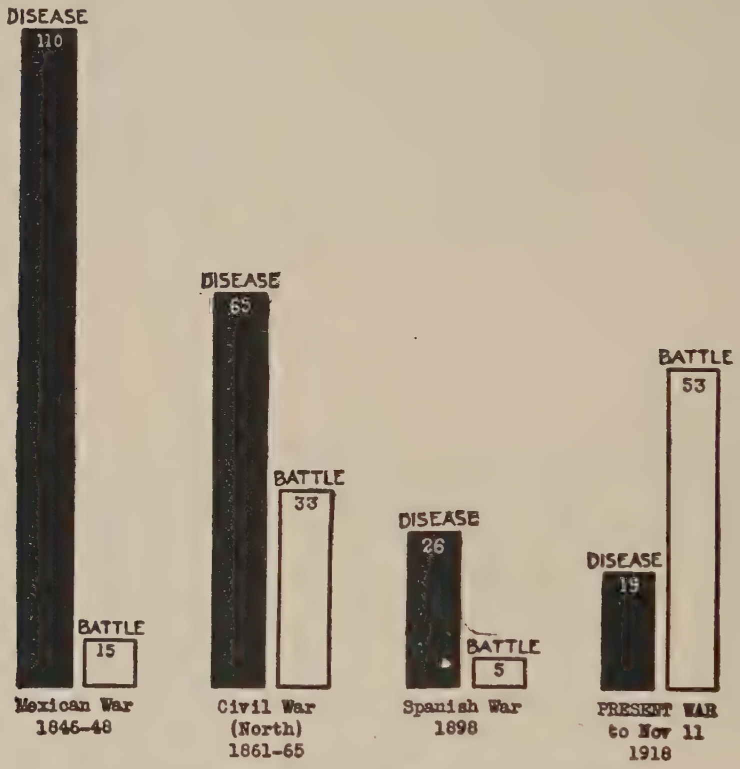
> The reconstruction of disabled men begins at the bedside. There are fifteen young women working here on bedside occupational therapy. They are giving work to patients in early convalescent stages. They help the men develop the proper attitude toward themselves and toward their future outlook in life. The patient may learn basketry, weaving, wood carving, modeling or other lines of hand work. His chief interest is taken away from his discomforts or his disability and he is made to feel some sense of responsibility toward himself and others. When he is strong enough he is taught some of the more difficult handicrafts or industrial arts—telegraphy, automobile construction, academic instruction, the principles of electricity, etc. No time is lost in the work of physical and mental reconstruction, and after living in the atmosphere of the Walter Reed Hospital the patient begins to feel as if he were just as useful an individual as any of his brothers on the outside.

In their endeavors to return wounded men to something like their former condition army surgeons accomplished marvels, and surgery developed in the course of the war to a point which ordinarily would have taken many years to attain.

Major Duval, a celebrated French surgeon, before the American Clinical Congress, set forth some of the remarkable wartime achievements, especially in lung surgery, with the development of which he is largely credited. He told of the success of the new technique whereby, after the thorax has been opened, a bullet removed from the lung, and the wound cleansed, the cavity is closed over, leaving open only an "anatomical valve" through which the air is exhausted from the pleural cavity with an aspirating apparatus. The valve then is closed, and, as a rule, in from twelve hours to four days the lung inflates itself once more and functions normally.

In New York—in the debarkation hospital that used to be a large department store—a battered American soldier was being examined. Over his damaged arm hung a white plate. And through the white plate Captain Charles Whalen, the X-ray expert of the establishment, was looking at the bone. He said it had been well set. Swinging the plate a foot to the left, the wounded lad's ribs were promptly brought into view. And there, expanding and contracting rhythmically, was his heart, and his lungs, as they filled and emptied, were visible. This contrivance by which the secrets of the body are bared to the human eye is the fluoroscope. An old story to doctors, it still indicates the wider field into which the various methods of surgery have expanded since the war.

When the Army Medical Corps was confronted with the problem of choosing a site in France for a hospital center, it went to Beaune, a beautiful village in the Côte-d'Or region, where a small hospital built by the Duke of Burgundy in 1443 had become famous throughout France for its cures.



Disease and Battle Deaths Contrasted in Four Wars

There, in the midst of vineyards famous for their Burgundy wine and under the shadow of Côte-d'Or Mountain, a gigantic hospital sprang up in a few months to overshadow the little institution at its side. It, too, already was famous for its surgery and its cures of ailments. The little American cemetery among the trees has only 150 American graves, representing the deaths among about fifteen thousand who passed through the hospital.

Surgeons say that in all France there were not two other hospitals to compare with these unique institutions. The American Army Hospital covers a square mile of territory, has six hundred buildings of a permanent type, with accommodations for almost twenty-five thousand patients, and is more than fifteen times the size of Bellevue Hospital, the largest civilian hospital in New York City.

The American Hospital is a model city in itself, and it is to remain in France after the American Army has been withdrawn, as a permanent memorial to the co-operation of the two republics.

Instead of being a single hospital, this vast institution became a series of ten hospitals, each able to care for more than two thousand patients, while the big convalescent camp, capable of caring for more than five thousand patients, became also a baseball field, a football gridiron, and a general sports center to aid in the rehabilitation and convalescence of wounded men. Each of these units had its own administration buildings, kitchens, mess halls, bathhouses, operating rooms, laboratories, officers' and nurses' barracks, in addition to twenty separate buildings for patients.

One of the units in the institution is a laundry capable of doing all the work for thirty thousand persons. In addition to the work for its staff and patients of about fifteen thousand in December, 1918, it served the wooden barracks hospital near Beaune, where about seventeen thousand patients were cared for. The estimate of Lieutenant-Colonel Henry Keep, who planned the work, was that all the units of this institution, including the laundry, at the prices of labor and materials in the United States, would have cost six million dollars.

All the work was done by the American Army engineers who directed the construction of the other army buildings in France, and their force of men comprised about five thousand American negro troops, with some French civilian labor and some Chinese. Railways were run to the tract and concrete mixers were kept going day and night until the last unit was finished.

Each of the ten units of the hospital had a staff of about thirty officers of the American Medical Corps, ninety-six nurses, and two hundred enlisted men of the Army Medical Corps or the Sanitary Corps. The units had their own commanding officers and surgical staffs, but the entire hospital was under the direction of Colonel Clarence J. Manly of the Army Medical Corps, who had his own staff of surgeons and inspectors. He had been in the service more than twenty years.

The World War added new horrors to the wounds and the deaths of the soldiers engaged in it. Poison gas bore in its train sufferings beyond the imagination of those who had served in former wars. Shell shock, caused for the most part by the impact and detonations of missiles from heavy artillery, was responsible for many thousands of victims.

War neurosis which shattered the nerves of combatants included shell shock. Dr. Edward Strecker, who served in the front-line and base hospitals in France, described its characteristics.

"War neurosis is not clearly understood," he said. "It is traced back to the early days of the war, in which we were still 'too proud to fight.' In the early rush of the Allies to get munitions some important things had to be neglected, and among them were the cases of neurosis. The Allies did not have the medical officers to cope with it, for in the rush of wounded the time necessary to study the cases could not be given, and many cases sent back as 'shell shock' were merely various mental nervous diseases. The British held a mistaken theory on shell shock, which is really an actual injury to some part of the nervous system. As an example of shell shock, a soldier during the Château-Thierry fight came running into my dressing station holding his hands to his head and cried: 'Please do something for me, my head is bursting!' and before we could get him on the cot he had dropped dead. What had happened to him must have been hemorrhage of the brain. It was a case of real shell shock.

"Self-preservation, the natural law, was subconsciously in the minds of everyone of the soldiers. They did not intentionally plan the conditions that led to neurosis, but the conditions were continually forming in their subconscious minds. The soldiers were as much surprised as their comrades when they succumbed. Due to the suffering, their power of resistance was lowered and in this condition the subconscious mind is strong. Under these conditions a man under heavy fire for a long period, a shell exploding near him, and partially covering him, would be stunned, and upon recovering, in a great many cases, would suffer neurosis, with a paralysis of some member. The condition is hysterical and soldiers have suffered from blindness after seeing particularly horrible sights; men upon burial details have lost the sense of smell, from the stench of the bodies of horses and men."

Dr. Strecker said that the percentage of war neurosis in the American Expeditionary Forces, was very small in comparison with the French and British. At the end of the war there were only ten thousand cases of neurosis in the American forces. In treating a case the surgeon would hold a conversation with the patient in order to get the mental attitude of the soldier, and from that they could give him the best treatment applicable to his particular case. Upon recovery the soldier would be told the mental conflict which had taken place in his mind that brought on the collapse, in order to fortify him against a recurrence.

CHAPTER XIX

All America Mobilized

IT was not in fighting and in the equipment that made for victorious fighting alone that America triumphed. Back of the battle line, in homes and shops, on farms and wherever Americans lived and labored, there came a union of effort for the winning of the war that far transcended everything the world had experienced in national effort.

All America mobilized when the summons to battle came. Women and children eagerly sought opportunity to co-operate in the mighty effort for world freedom. In food production and conservation, in Red Cross workrooms, in training hospitals, in the welfare work for soldiers that made the American Army a miracle of contentment at home and overseas, and in countless other endeavors the urge of the American people toward victory was manifested.

The taunt of the enemy that America was "a land of dollar worshipers" was proved to be false. Never had there been witnessed such a generous outpouring of resources. Rich and poor were brethren in sacrifice. It was a competition in patriotic service in which each vied with his neighbor and in which the American people released impulses making for regeneration and spiritual development.

Foremost in the activities of American civilians were those concerned with the welfare of the nation's fighting forces. Most of this effort was concentrated under the direction of the Commission on Training Camp Activities. Secretary of War Baker thus summarized that work:

TRAINING CAMP ACTIVITIES

The Commission on Training Camp Activities was created in April, 1917, by the Secretary of War to advise him on all matters relating to the morale of the troops. Cut off from home, family, friends, clubs, churches, the hundred thousands of men who poured into the country's camps required something besides the routine of military training if they were to be kept healthy mentally and spiritually. It became the task of the commission to foster in the camps a new social world. This was done through its own agents and through the agents of the affiliated organizations over which it had supervision. It provided club life, it organized athletics, it furnished recreation through theaters and mass singing, it provided educational facilities, it furnished opportunity for religious services to be held, it went into the communities outside the camps and reorganized their facilities for offering hospitality to the soldiers. While it provided these advantages to the soldier, it also sought to protect him from vicious influences by a systematic campaign of education against venereal disease and by strict enforcement of laws against liquor selling and prostitution. The effort was to furnish for the men an environment not only clean and wholesome, but actually inspiring—to make them fit and eager to fight for democracy.

While much of this work was carried on by the commission itself through government appropriations, a great deal of it was made possible by private organizations which worked under the supervision of the commission. These organizations, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the National Catholic War Council (Knights of Columbus), the War Camp Community Service, the American Library Association, the Jewish Welfare Board and the Salvation Army were enormously effective in maintaining the morale of our troops at home and overseas.

ATHLETICS

One of the first things undertaken by the commission was the stimulation of athletic sports. Forty-four athletic directors and thirty boxing instructors were appointed in the various camps and an organization was built up by which the men in the camps were participating regularly in some form of athletics, both as part of their military training and as spare-time recreation. Mass athletics, boxing, hand-to-hand fighting, and calisthenics proved so valuable in promoting military efficiency that many of the civilian athletic directors were commissioned. At first it was difficult to obtain an adequate quantity of athletic equipment for the soldiers. Funds were lacking and raw material for manufacturing equipment was scarce. In many cases a company box of equipment had to serve a regiment. But later, funds appropriated by the government were available, supplemented by generous subscriptions collected by special committees working under the direction of the commission.

FIGHTING DISEASE

Much attention, too, was given to the problem of social hygiene. A wide educational campaign along lines of sex hygiene was undertaken in all the camps and civilian population of the country regarding the nature and prevention of venereal disease. Lectures, moving pictures, and exhibits of various kinds were utilized, and extensive literature was developed. More than 2,000,000 soldiers were reached by lecturers; fifty-eight camps received stereomotographs, and 116 camps and posts received placard exhibits. In the larger military establishments trained non-commissioned officers were in charge of this work.

The Section on Men's Work conducted an extensive campaign of education among civilians. It sought to stimulate the enforcement of existing laws against prostitution and to pass new ones where needed to curb vice and liquor selling. Its chief effort was given to promoting education about venereal disease through industrial establishments, enlisting the support of employers who devoted time and money to furthering the work among their employees. The Section on Women's Work, by circulation of literature and exhibits, enlisted the special interest of women, individually and in groups, in the fight against disease.

The Law Enforcement Division was the agency through which the commission acted in making effective the government policy of suppressing prostitution and illicit liquor selling.

LIBERTY THEATRES

When General Pershing said: "Give me a thousand soldiers occasionally entertained to ten thousand soldiers without entertainment," he voiced the need for entertainment in the camps. The Commission on Training Camp Activities built Liberty theaters in thirty-four camps. The smallest of these theaters seated about one thousand and the largest somewhat over three thousand. Built of wood, but so constructed as to be easily emptied in case of fire, they were modern in every respect and equipped with all necessary paraphernalia for the handling of scenery and lighting effects. The cost of the buildings varied from $5,000 to $50,000, depending upon the size; and the government appropriated $1,250,000 for this work. Each theater was in the charge of a resident manager appointed by the commission.

In addition to the regular performances staged in these theaters on a booking circuit, the commission appointed dramatic directors in many of the camps, so that the boys overseas were equipped to stage their own performances and thus were provided with means of self-entertainment.

CIVILIAN AGENCIES

The great civilian agencies, notably the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, the Salvation Army, the American Library Association, the War Camp Community Service and the Jewish Welfare Board served the young manhood of America with a helpfulness which passes all description. They added the touch of home and affectionate interest; they gave comfort and diversion; they helped to create and preserve the spirit of manliness and dignity of behavior and thought which characterized our army, and they led our home communities in the formation of an environment in which alone such an army could have been created.

THE RED CROSS

Among the civilian organizations which devoted themselves to the relief of human suffering and to care for our men in service, the most important was the American Red Cross. This organization had been in existence for many years, and had done a wonderful work as the protector of peoples and communities that had suffered widespread calamity and were unable to help themselves. On April 6, 1917, the United States declared war on the Imperial German Government. On May 10, 1917, President Wilson, who was also president of the Red Cross, on account of the tremendous increase in the volume and scope of Red Cross work after it entered the war, created the Red Cross War Council as a Board of Managing Directors for the war period, and appointed as chairman Mr. Henry P. Davison, of New York, a member of the firm of J. P. Morgan & Co., and well known for his administrative ability.

On March 1, 1919, Mr. Davison retired from this position, and in a statement addressed to the American people he summed up the activities of the Red Cross during the war as follows: "During the past nearly twenty-one months the American people have given in cash and supplies to the American Red Cross more than $400,000,000. No value can be placed upon the contributions of service which have been given without stint and oftentimes at great sacrifice by millions of our people. The effort of the American Red Cross in this war has constituted by far the largest voluntary gifts of money, of hand and heart ever contributed purely for the relief of human suffering. Through the Red Cross the ardent spirit of the whole American people has been mobilized to take care of our own, to relieve the misery incident to war, and also to reveal to the world the supreme ideals of our national life.

"Every one who has any part in this war effort of the Red Cross is entitled to congratulate himself. No thanks from anyone can be equal in value to the self-satisfaction everyone should feel for the part taken. Fully eight million American women have exerted themselves in Red Cross service. When we entered the war the American Red Cross had about five hundred thousand members. Today there are upwards of seventeen million full-paid members, outside of the members of the Junior Red Cross, numbering perhaps nine million school children additional. The chief effort of the Red Cross during the war has been to care for our men in service, and to aid our army and navy wherever the Red Cross may have been called on to assist. As to this phase of the work, Surgeon-General Ireland of the United States Army, recently said: 'The Red Cross has been an enterprise as vast as the war itself. From the beginning it has done those things which the Army Medical Corps wanted done but could not do itself.'

"The Red Cross endeavor in France was upon an exceptionally large scale. Service was rendered not only to the American Army, but to the French Army and French people as well, the latter, particularly, during the trying period when the allied world was waiting for the American Army to arise in force and power. The American Red Cross work in France was initiated by a commission of eighteen men, who landed on French shores June 13, 1917. More than nine thousand persons were upon the rolls in France. Of them seven thousand were actively engaged when the armistice was signed."

The work of the Red Cross in France was but a small part of its achievement. One of its most important labors was in its Home Service Department. Features of this work were safeguarding girls, boys and women from bad working conditions, fitting people to the right job, and helping them to success by bringing the right job and person together, seeing that insurance policies did not lapse in case the mother and wife did not understand them thoroughly, moving families to better quarters, protecting the recipient of pay and allowance checks, furnishing the best legal advice for families in the perplexing problems arising from the war, being big brother and big sister to soldiers' children.

The Red Cross established a Bureau of Communications, whose object was to serve as a clearing house between the men in the field and the people at home, with a special aim of obtaining accurate information about soldiers who were missing or dead. Some idea of the scope of its work can be obtained by a brief description of the work of its various bureaus. The Bureau of Camp Service looked after the soldiers and sailors in military and naval establishments throughout the United States. Its activities consisted, first, in the distribution of comfort articles; second, in hospital service; third, in home service; fourth, in emergency service. During the first year of the war there were distributed 6,582,781 articles, such as sweaters, socks, comfort kits, wristlets, mufflers, helmets, etc., as well as a large number of other supplies. In its hospital service, daily visits were made to patients as far as practicable. Convalescent houses were built to provide recreation and amusement for soldiers recovering from illness, recreation houses were built for nurses to add to their comfort and a Communication Service was established to furnish information to the families. The Bureau of Medical Service organized forty-seven ambulance companies, which were sent with the army for service in France. First-aid instruction classes were established to teach young women to administer first-aid treatment properly and intelligently when emergencies arrived. Four thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven such classes were organized and fifty-four thousand six hundred and eleven certificates issued. The Bureau of Base Hospitals organized Red Cross Base hospitals which were transferred to the Medical Department of the United States Army, and sent to England and France for duty. Fifty such hospitals were organized, with one additional hospital specifically authorized by the Secretary of War for duty. These hospitals were thoroughly equipped by the Red Cross, and organized from the staffs of the best hospitals in the country.

The Bureau of Reconstruction of Crippled Soldiers established an institute for the re-education of cripples, in New York City, through the generosity of Mr. Jeremiah Milbank, and distributed hundreds of thousands of leaflets on reconstructing the wounded soldier, and rehabilitating the war cripple. Various departments for training cripples have been inaugurated, and the Employment Bureau helps them to get positions. The Bureau of Canteen Service undertook to supplement the work of the army and navy in making the men comfortable during the movement of troops to camps and ports of embarkation. More than seven hundred canteens, with 250 canteen huts, were erected with more than fifty-five thousand women canteen workers. The necessity of this work will be appreciated when it is stated that more than fifty-one thousand nine hundred men needed medical assistance while en route to the camps.

The Bureau of Sanitary Service undertook to secure sanitary control in civil districts adjacent to army cantonments and naval bases. The work of this bureau was extremely important, and in many cases prevented what might have been serious attacks of disease.

The Bureau of Motor Service helped in moving sick and wounded men from ships and trains to hospitals or homes, in calling for and delivering supplies, and in taking Red Cross nurses and workers on official errands. This service was rendered entirely by full-time volunteer women who gave at least sixteen hours a week of their time, and who wore a standard uniform and were subject in their work to strict discipline.

The Bureau of Construction, the Bureau of Naval Medical Affairs, and the Bureau of Co-ordination with the Navy Department also belong to the Department of Military Relief.

The most important department of the American Red Cross, however, was the Department of Nursing, under Miss Jane A. Delano, director-general. Behind every battle line of Europe stood that inspiring figure, the Red Cross nurse. Like the soldiers of the National Army, she received and obeyed orders to report for duty where danger was thickest. She has proved her mettle when the enemy sent his death bombs from the sky; she has refused to leave her post when armies have retreated; she has died as valiantly as any hero of the war. Into homes, hospitals and camps she has gone, carrying healing in her hands. She has for her valor been decorated by governments, she has worked through the hours of the day and through the night, not counting time nor fatigue nor any personal desire. Hers has been a service of complete devotion to humanity.

The Department of Nursing in the Red Cross created the bureaus of Enrolment, Field Nursing Service, Nurses' Aid and Instruction, Town and Country Nursing Service, Dietitian Service.

The Bureau of Enrolment undertook to recruit nurses during the war, and more than thirty thousand Red Cross nurses were enrolled. The assignment of the nurses recruited to the military establishment and other field service activities was the duty of the Bureau of Field Nursing Service.

The Nurses' Aid Bureau enrolled untrained nurses, as a supplement to the regular nurses' service.

The Town and Country Bureau interested itself in the public health, and the Dietitian Service instructed in questions of household science.

Another important department of the Red Cross was the Department of Supplies, which conducted one of the largest merchandising businesses in the world, and still another was the Bureau of Transportation, which shipped across the seas hundreds of thousands of cubic tons of supplies.

The Department of Publicity did an important service in presenting to the public the needs of the Red Cross. It established the bureaus of Fuel Service, Motion Pictures, Advertising, Speakers' Bureau, Translation and Information, Reference and Clippings. Then there were also the Department of Foreign Relief and the Bureau of Medical Service for Foreign Commissions, which did valuable work.

During the war the American Red Cross sent commissions into France, Russia, Great Britain, Roumania, Serbia, Belgium, Italy, Palestine, Switzerland, Greece, and sent aid to Poland, Canada, Azores and Madeira Islands, Portugal, Armenia and Assyria. Most of the overseas relief work was done in France. This work was divided naturally into two classes: Work among the soldiers and work for the civilian population.

The Department of Military Affairs was organized for work among the soldiers, and the Department of Civil Affairs for the civilians. The Department of Military Affairs organized an extensive canteen service, and established rest stations at railway points through which large numbers of troops passed. The work of its Medical and Surgical Section was the chief function of the work of the American Red Cross in the war. Among the activities undertaken by this section was the establishment of American Red Cross hospitals, American Red Cross Military hospitals, dispensaries and diet kitchens and convalescent hospitals, the furnishing of medical supplies to army hospitals, the assignment of nurses to French hospitals, and supplying artificial limbs to French veterans and medical service to American Red Cross auxiliaries. The value of medical supplies is approximately $10,000,000.

The Field Service Section distributed among the soldiers a great variety of comforts. It also furnished books, magazines and newspapers, stationery, phonographs and other musical instruments, tobacco, games and numerous articles needed by the sick while they were convalescing. It established libraries in each base and camp hospital, and created a moving picture circuit with six million feet of film to be shown the soldiers during the year.

The Department of Civil Affairs established bureaus to aid the refugees outside of the war zone, to do relief work in the war zone, to educate cripples, to care for the tubercular and to care for the children. Similar work to that done in France was carried out among other foreign nations, assisted by the Red Cross according to their needs.

A full understanding of the work of the American Red Cross cannot be obtained without a consideration of the work of the Woman's Bureau, which gave special attention to the selection of materials, the preparation of specifications for the manufacture of Red Cross surgical dressings and other relief supplies, and for the training of chapter workers engaged in the production of these supplies. This bureau was later discontinued, and its functions transferred to the Bureau of Chapter Production. Patterns, specifications, and directions for surgical dressings, hospital garments and supplies, refugee clothing, knitted articles, and comforts for soldiers and sailors were prepared after careful study and consultations with experts in the various lines. This form of Red Cross work attracted the interest of war workers in every part of the country, and during the first year of the war more than two hundred and twenty-one million articles were produced at an estimated value of more than $44,000,000.

Two great war fund drives were carried on to provide funds for the work of the American Red Cross. The first producing more than $110,000,000, and the second approximating $176,000,000. Nearly eight million women took an active part in the Red Cross work.

Y. M. C. A.

Another civilian organization which took an active part in the work of the war was the Young Men's Christian Association, under the direction of Dr. John R. Mott, General Secretary of the National War Work Countil.

During the World War the work of the "Y" was seen carried on in a thousand buildings, tents, and other structures, with a staff of over four thousand secretaries; in Italy, where there were three hundred workers; in Russia where the Czecho-Slovak were quoted as saying that they looked upon the American Y. M. C. A. as the uncle of the Czecho-Slovak movement; in Mesopotamia, on the Gallipoli peninsula, and in Macedonia, with the British armies; besides the colossal task undertaken by it in connection with the American Expeditionary Forces in France.

The Y. M. C. A. had in operation in France fifteen hundred huts, rented buildings and tents, the free use of which was given to every man in the American Army. It paid between sixty and seventy dollars a ton for coal during the bitter winter of 1917–18 in order that in the hundreds of villages where the Americans were billeted there might be one place where the doughboys who had been drilling in sleet or rain could come to dry themselves, and get some warmth and light, where they could write their home letters and read the magazines.

The Association sent overseas hundreds of athletic directors, and spent between one million and two million dollars on athletic supplies for the free use of the American soldiers and sailors. It maintained overseas one hundred entertainment troupes free of charge and every month over four million feet of films were shown each month in the Y. M. C. A. huts to a nightly attendance of nearly three hundred thousand men. The movies were the most popular of all the entertainments, and wherever an American film was on display, there the doughboys would be gathered together.

In hundreds of American cities the Young Men's Christian Association gave regular membership privileges free for at least three months to all men in uniform, and the employment bureaus of the Association were among the most effective of all agencies for this purpose.

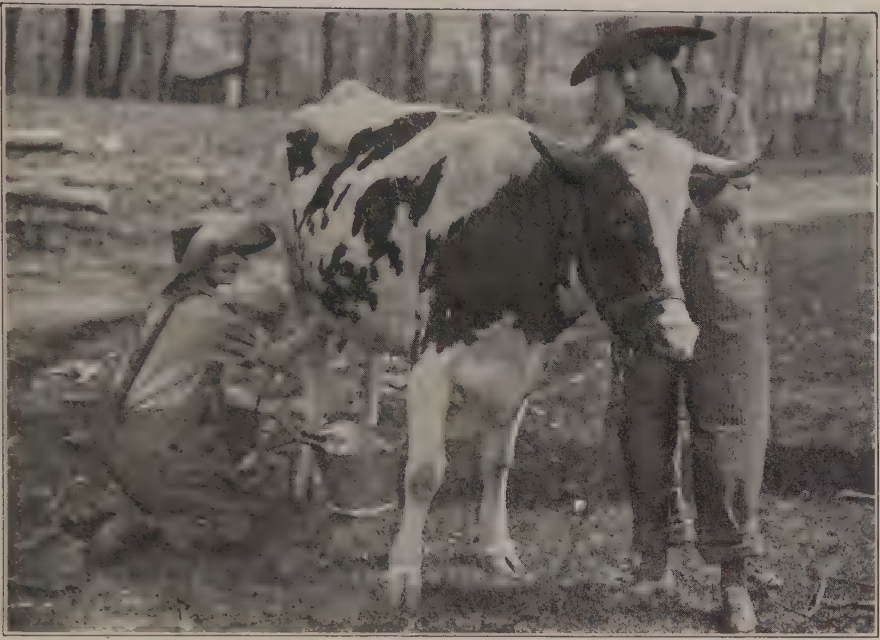
Despite all this there were a great number of criticisms, mainly in connection with the canteen service which the War Department asked the "Y" to take over, and which they tried to run on a business basis.

Dr. Mott, speaking to General Pershing, said to the General: "We are having many criticisms now." Pershing replied, "The Y. M. C. A. are not in this to avoid criticism, are they? but to render as much service as possible to the men."

In November, 1918, the Y. M. C. A. was doing a business of five hundred thousand dollars a month conducted almost entirely by men untrained for such work and under most abnormal conditions. "Why did the Y. M. C. A. undertake this canteen work if it wasn't prepared?" one of its officers was asked. "Because the War Department asked it to do so," was his reply. "What would the American people have thought of the 'Y' if it had refused? What was there to do but help General Pershing out?"

The fact is that it was wonderful that the Y. M. C. A. did as well as they did in their canteen work. Each canteen was managed by a secretary, and the secretaries had not been recruited from among men familiar with such work. They were largely lawyers, bankers, teachers, preachers. They suddenly found themselves selling tobacco, chocolate, razor blades, cakes, pins, etc., in something like twenty-five hundred canteens of the "Y" in the American operations during the St. Mihiel drive, the chief-of-staff of the American Army in a special order, expressed his appreciation.

Forty-nine of the Y. M. C. A. secretaries were killed at the front, and eighty-nine seriously gassed and wounded; twenty-three had crosses conferred upon them or been cited for exceptional bravery.



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THE FARMERETTES AT MILKING TIME

College girls milking cows to do their bit for Uncle Sam.

© *Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.*

THE FARMERETTES AT WORK

In the great shortage of men, women took up farm work and were of the greatest help to Uncle Sam in keeping up the food supplies.

STORMING A GERMAN REDOUBT

Typical battle scene showing the infantry between our barrage (left) and German shells (right) storming the German stronghold.

Y. W. C. A.

The work of the Young Women's Christian Association was closely connected with that of the Young Men's Christian Association. Its efforts were confined very largely to the army camps and naval stations in America. When those camps and stations were established, thousands of women came flocking to them to see their men relatives. The problem of what to do with these women presented great difficulty to the commanding officers. The Y. W. C. A. undertook to solve the problem and had done so with the hostess houses. Millions have been spent to erect and operate the scores of such houses that were placed so as to be easily accessible to arrivals at the camp or training station. More than one hundred hostess houses were in operation in the different camps. Where there were negro troops special hostess houses had been provided for colored women. The Travelers' Aid Society worked in co-operation with the Y. W. C. A. in meeting trains. A secretary welcomed the visitors, and an able staff of women looked after their comfort.

As the war went on, the Y. W. C. A. extended its work to France. Hostess houses were established there at Paris and Tours, clubs for French working women and business girls, clubs for nurses with the American Army, clubs for women of the signal corps, clubs for British women working with the American Army, and recreation work for all women employed by the American Expeditionary Forces.

K. OF C.

One of the most popular civilian organizations which placed its resources at the disposal of the United States Government, was the Knights of Columbus, which represented in the American camps the Catholic soldiers and sailors, and worked in harmony with the Y. M. C. A. and the Jewish Welfare Board, for their comfort. The work of this organization was done under the direction of James A. Flaherty of Philadelphia, Supreme Knight of the Order. By an assessment of $2.00 per capita of the entire membership of the order, which was composed of nearly four hundred thousand men, a war fund was raised to be used in looking after the comforts of the

Catholic soldiers and sailors. Provision was also made for the payment of the general dues and insurance assessments of members of this organization enlisted in service. Inasmuch as these were numbered at about forty thousand men the continuance of insurance for these men aided much the morale of our fighting forces. Later on, special campaigns for funds were conducted by this order and more than twelve million dollars was raised in one year by their first appeal to the American people. The work of the Knights of Columbus in the various camps was everywhere extremely successful. Absolute avoidance of discrimination, coupled with the limitation of the religious feature of the service to Catholic boys, won plaudits from all over the land. They offered clean, manly, entertainment to the men, and their secretaries were sent into the field with the injunction to serve the men with the colors as they would serve their own sons and brothers. After having established themselves in the home camps, they turned their attention to work overseas. Certain obstacles were met with because of the fact that they were not well known by the governments associated with ours. But these obstacles were soon overcome. General Pershing extended a cordial welcome to the Knights of Columbus, and in General Order 64 placed them on a par with the Red Cross, and all other war relief organizations. Hundreds of secretaries and chaplains were sent overseas, the secretaries under the direct supervision of the Knights, the chaplains directed by Archbishop Patrick J. Hayes, Bishop of all Catholic Chaplains with the American Naval and Military Forces. Immense quantities of supplies were sent to France and furnished free to the men in service. Roller kitchens were sent over and followed the men right into action. As the war continued, the number of Knights of Columbus secretaries was still being increased. Several of them were cited for bravery under fire, many were seriously injured, five died from disease.

All told the Knights of Columbus personnel abroad numbered approximately 1,075 chaplains and secretaries, while at home 650 secretaries and representatives were on four hundred ships of the United States Navy. And their employment organization acted as an auxiliary to the United States

Employment Service. The Knights met incoming transports, and rendered aid to the incoming men. They conducted a lost sailors' and soldiers' bureau, which located hundreds of service men supposed to be missing. The growth of their work required a budget of thirty million dollars during the second year of the war, and they continued their policy of giving the soldiers free supplies wherever they established themselves.

The head of the Order, James A. Flaherty; the Supreme Secretary, William J. McGinley of New York; Daniel J. Callahan, Supreme Treasurer, and the Supreme Advocate, Joseph C. Pelletier of Boston became members of the War Work Committee, P. H. Callahan of Louisville, Ky., being the chairman. James J. McGraw of Ponca City, Okla., another member of the board, was also voted on the committee. Later, this War Activities Committee was reorganized and enlarged, William J. Mulligan of Connecticut, a member of the Board of Directors, becoming chairman, and William P. Larkin of New York, also a director, joining the committee as home director of overseas operations.

The amount expended was $25,000,000, allotted to the order from the united war relief and other funds.

The Knights point to the fact that, while they expended approximately seven millions dollars for cigars, cigarettes, candy, and other "creature comforts" for the boys—declared to be more than all the other war relief organizations together—their administrative expenses were but $166,616.76, which was exceeded by the cash discounts granted for prompt payment of bills.

In the United States the "Caseys" maintained 178 buildings and fourteen tents in the eastern-northeastern department; eighty-nine buildings and five tents in the southeastern; 152 buildings and seven tents in the central-southern, and forty-two buildings and six tents in the western, a total of 461 buildings and thirty-two tents.

Overseas there were 125 permanent Knights of Columbus huts, with as many more temporary clubs that moved with the troops. There were "Caseys" in Germany with the army of occupation, in the British Isles, in Italy, in Siberia, and scattered throughout France.

JEWISH WELFARE BOARD

The Jewish Welfare Board did for men of the Jewish faith what the Young Men's Christian Association and the Knights of Columbus did for their own people. Fifty buildings were erected in the army cantonments and 250 workers were sent to the various camps. Stationery, Jewish periodicals and newspapers, games and books were distributed to the men. The War Camp Community Service was organized in communities adjacent to the training camps to provide the men with social pleasures and recreations. Five hundred and thirty-two community services were organized, which opened information bureaus, hotels, lodgings, and restaurants for the men in service, gave them an opportunity for social pleasure and arranged for them amusements and recreations.

The Jewish Welfare Board was created in the spring of 1917 by the joint action of representatives from some ten or twelve national Jewish organizations, in order to meet the emergencies precipitated by the war. Colonel Harry Cutler was made chairman, Dr. Cyrus Adler vice-chairman, and such well-known Jews as Abram I. Elkus, Judge Julian Mack, Louis Marshall, Mortimer L. Schiff and Justice Irving Lehman were members of its executive committee.

Trained workers were sent to camps, cantonments, forts and naval training stations to provide for the recreational and spiritual needs of all men in uniform. Buildings were erected in the various camps with auditoriums, rest and writing rooms and libraries. Classes in history, English, current events and the like were formed and concerts, theatrical and minstrel shows, patriotic celebrations, lectures, debates and other functions were arranged. Branch organizations for welfare work were established in more than one hundred and fifty cities, which established community centers for soldiers and sailors, containing rest, reading and social rooms, sleeping quarters and baths. Gifts and supplies were collected and distributed free of all cost among the soldiers. More than four hundred workers wore the uniform of the Jewish Welfare Board.

More than fifty huts were established in various parts of France and occupied Germany by the Jewish Welfare Board.

President and Mrs. Wilson, while abroad at the Peace Conference, visited a Jewish Welfare Board hut and attended a performance which was enacted by soldiers, the properties, costumes and other accessories, as well as the auditorium, being provided by the board. The commander-in-chief of the American Expeditionary Forces, General Pershing, Secretary of War Baker and other military leaders sent congratulatory messages to the board for the welfare work done during the war. Raymond B. Fosdick, Director of the Commission on Training Camp Activities, in a letter to the chairman of the board, said:

"I want to express to you my hearty appreciation of your fine co-operative spirit in all the work we have jointly undertaken, as well as my realization of the many obstacles you have had to overcome and the difficulties that have faced you."

SALVATION ARMY

The Salvation Army also took an effective part in the war. It had had experience all through the Boer War, and through the early part of the great war. It provided 410 huts, hostels and rest rooms, and 1,200 trained and uniformed workers of whom eighty-five per cent were women. It also provided forty-four ambulances, and shipped more than three hundred tons of supplies every month for the soldiers and sailors. It served hot coffee, cocoa, chocolate, sandwiches, pies and doughnuts to the troops without cost. It was ready to mend the soldiers clothes, to transfer money, and to take charge of valuables. The workers were all trained in first-aid work, and served as auxiliaries in this work when needed.

No work of any organization was more popular with the soldiers in France.

Colonel William S. Barker of the Salvation Army, who was the first of his organization to go to France after America entered the war, told of the work done on the western front by his people:

"We began with the small sum of twenty-five thousand dollars, and seven workers were all I had when I first went over—four men and three women," he said. "But much help was given us. For example, we didn't know what to do for buildings, but the American Army immediately turned over to us twenty-one hangars at Bordeaux and Brest and other points, and we moved right into them.

"The Salvation Army never at any time had a large force on the other side. In all, we sent over two hundred and forty-five American workers, and never had more than one hundred and seventy-six there at once. Our staff was augmented by details of French workers, so that we had about six hundred in all. We carried on a cash business with the soldiers, and when things are wound up we shall about break even.

"When soldiers had no money they were welcome to what we had, and we were never afraid to trust the boys, and they dealt honestly with us. Once, in Paris, a young Jew who had been allowed leave to attend one of the Jewish holiday celebrations came to me and asked to borrow ten dollars to get back to his regiment. He had asked for the loan at various organizations, and had been refused. I examined his papers, saw they were all right and loaned him the money. In a fortnight I received his money order for the amount."

Colonel Barker told how the Salvation Army doughnut came into being:

"When I landed in France," he said, "I was asked to dine with Brigadier-General George P. Duncan, commanding officer of the 1st Brigade. Desiring to be polite to the Americans, his chef, a fine one, prepared for us an alleged apple pie, which we, although also wishing to be polite, were quite unable to eat. The French can do many things, but they can't make pie. I told General Duncan that when our girls arrived they would bake him a pie, a real pie. Well they did, and then I thought that nothing would make the soldiers forget their homesickness like generous supplies of pie.

"But, unfortunately, we couldn't get the stoves. Our best piemaker, Adjutant Margaret Sheldon of Chicago, then had an inspiration. Her stove in her hut at Montiers sur Sauls was only twelve inches square, and she could bake but one pie at a time. Why not, she asked, fry doughnuts, since the top of the stove would hold a fairly large kettle? So she started frying doughnuts, at the same time baking her one pie at a time. And those boys were so grateful! I've seen them sometimes stand in line in the rain two hours, each man holding up his little stick on which to receive the six doughnuts to which he was entitled.

"There was a chap named Fred Anderson of Seattle, who constructed a stove out of a metal wheelbarrow and fried flapjacks on a piece of sheet iron, which he laid over the fire. He was up at the front all the time, and used to make daring journeys back to buy eggs and supplies for the soldiers. Our workers were under fire many times, and often our women had to sleep out in the fields because the Germans were shelling the villages. But we came through without the loss of a life, save one man who died of the 'flu.' "

COLORED AGENCIES

Colored nurses were authorized by the War Department for service in base hospitals at six army camps—Funston, Sherman, Grant, Dix, Taylor and Dodge. Colored women have served as canteen workers in France and in charge of hostess houses in this country.

One colored man, Ralph W. Tyler, was named as an accredited war correspondent, attached to the staff of General Pershing. Dr. R. R. Moton was sent on a special mission to France by President Wilson and Secretary Baker.

Emmett J. Scott served as special assistant to the Secretary of War, in charge of affairs relating to the negro in connection with the military service and with the interests of the colored race in general. He has a spacious office in State, War and Navy Building, Washington, with an immediate staff of eight persons. The activities of this office bring it into touch with every bureau of the War Department, in handling the manifold interests of the twelve million colored people of the country.

A specially selected committee of one hundred colored speakers, acting with local groups everywhere, materially assisted in the work of maintaining the morale of the negro race, and continued this helpful work through the period of demobilization of the army and the reconstruction of the nation to a peace basis.

Provision was made by the War Department for the training of twenty thousand colored young men in military science and tactics, in conjunction with their general education, through Students' Army Training Corps and Vocational Detachments, established in upwards of twenty leading colored schools of the nation.

A colored woman, Mrs. Alice Dunbar Nelson, was named as a field worker to mobilize the colored women of the country for war work.

Colored women rendered exceptionally valuable service in the industries and on the farms, maintaining production in the mills and promoting the food supply through agricultural pursuits, releasing men for duty at the front.

Colored people bought millions of dollars' worth of Liberty Bonds and War Savings Stamps and contributed most generously to the Red Cross, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. and other war relief agencies.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

The American Library Association placed hundreds of libraries in camps and stations and on ships, distributed the magazines contributed by the public, and bought educational and technical books to meet the demand of the men for books that helped.

CHAPTER XX

AMERICAN WOMEN IN THE WAR

IF it had not been for the women of America the World War could not have been won.

The truth of this statement will be revealed by an examination of the activities and achievements of American womanhood after this country entered the great conflict. Women were factors in the manufacture of shells, powder and munitions of all sorts. They tilled the soil and harvested immense quantities of food stuffs without which the Allies must have succumbed. It was the housewives of America who conserved food and cut off waste that the fighting and civilian populations with which we were leagued might be fed. Triumphs of food preparations were achieved in American kitchens for the utilization of foods to which American households were unaccustomed.

Women drove ambulances, motor trucks and passenger vehicles. They released hundreds of thousands of able men for the fighting forces of the nation. They entered by thousands into the administrative offices of federal, state and municipal government. As nurses and teachers, they healed the sick and wounded and taught the crippled new means of gaining their livelihood. In workrooms that were countless they prepared bandages and other supplies for battlefield and hospital and clothing for the destitute of lands overrun by our foes. President Wilson phrased their services when he said:

> I think the whole country has appreciated the way in which the women have risen to this great occasion. They have not only done what they have been asked to do, and done it with ardor and efficiency, but they have shown the power to organize for doing things on their own initiative, which is quite a different thing and a very much more difficult thing. I think the whole country has admired the spirit and the capacity of devotion of the women of the United States. It goes without saying that the country

depends upon the women for a large part of the inspiration of its life. That is obvious. But it is now depending upon the women also for suggestions of service, which have been rendered in abundance and with the distinction of originality.

Long before the war began the women in individual organizations had been interested in the war, and had sent aid to the suffering in Belgium, in France and wherever the aid was needed. When America entered into the war, for the first time in history official recognition was given to women in the construction of the war machine, and the response of the women to that recognition was universal. On April 21, 1917, fifteen days after Congress had formally declared that a state of war existed between this country and Germany, the Council of National Defense, made the following announcement:

> Realizing the inestimable value of woman's contribution to national effort under modern war conditions, the Council of National Defense has appointed a committee of women of national prominence to consider and advise how the assistance of the women of America may be made available in the prosecution of the war. These women are appointed as individuals, regardless of any organizations with which they may be associated. The body will be known as the Committee on Woman's Defense Work. Its membership is as follows: Dr. Anna Howard Shaw, chairman; Mrs. Philip N. Moore, of St. Louis, President of the National Council of Women; Mrs. Josiah E. Cowles, of California, President of the General Federation of Women's Clubs; Miss Maude Wetmore, of Rhode Island, Chairman of the National League for Woman's Service; Mrs. Carrie Chapman Catt, of New York, President of the National American Woman's Suffrage Association; Mrs. Antoinette F. Funk, of Illinois; Mrs. Stanley McCormich, of Boston; Mrs. Joseph R. Lamar, of Atlanta, Georgia, President of the National Society of Colonial Dames; Miss Ida M. Tarbell, of New York, publicist and writer.

Later, Miss Agnes Nestor, of Chicago, President of the International Glove Workers' Union, and Miss Hannah Jane Patterson, of Washington, were added to the committee, and Miss Patterson was made resident director.

The Woman's Committee, therefore, owed its creation to the Council of National Defense, a body authorized by act of Congress in August, 1916, consisting of the Secretary of War, Secretary of the Navy, Secretary of the Interior, Secretary of Agriculture, Secretary of Commerce and the Secretary of Labor. This council was directed to nominate to the President, and the President to appoint an Advisory Commission, of not more than seven persons, qualified to assist in the work. It was given the power to organize subordinate bodies and committees, and the Woman's Committee was created in accordance with that power. The purpose of the committee was to organize the activities of the women of the country, and supply a direct channel of communication between the women and the government.

Primarily, the Woman's Committee was advisory, and many of the national woman leaders regretted that the committee was not given more power; but in actual practice, the committee initiated and carried out its wonderful work with almost complete independence. On May 2, 1917, it met in Washington and formulated a plan of organization which was immediately sent out to leading women in each of the forty-eight states. The plan was to co-ordinate the women's organizations already in existence, so that no defense work of any kind already done should be lost.

A temporary chairman was appointed in each of the forty-eight states, and the District of Columbia. These temporary chairmen were expected to call in conference the representatives of all woman's organizations, having state-wide scope, state branches of woman's national organizations, and such individuals as they thought fit to represent the state at large. These groups, with committees, in counties, cities and towns constituted the state divisions that became the official representatives of the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense for the States. These state divisions were charged with the duty of carrying forward all necessary forms of patriotic service or defense programs. Each state division elected a permanent chairman, one or more vice-chairmen and a secretary, a treasurer, and such other officers as were desired.

Each division adopted its own by-laws, and appointed its executive committee, authorized to do business. It was advised to divide its work into departments, each with a competent chairman, selected because of special fitness. City committees were urged to establish auxiliary units in each ward, with a temporary chairman presiding over the conference composed of individual members.

This plan sought to link together existing organizations of women. Women, however, not members of any organization were entitled to representation. The Woman's Committee, acting under governmental authority, was able to have the advantage of expert governmental advice, and the committee acted as an agent to transmit any demand of the government to the woman's organizations.

On June 9, 1917, the Woman's Committee issued a call to the heads of about two hundred national organizations of women to meet in Washington with the Woman's Committee on June 19th. More than fifty national organizations met in response to this call.

The full power of the Woman's Committee was exerted in forwarding the national food administrator's first drive for food conservation. Then came a systematic plan for registering both the volunteer and the wage-earning women of the country for national service. Later the full machinery of its organization was placed at the disposal of the Liberty Loan Committee. It also became active in the effort to safeguard the morals of enlisted men in the camps. It interested itself in keeping the children in school, in enforcing the new Child Labor Law, in furthering the passage of the bill pending in Congress providing insurance and indemnity for our soldiers and sailors. It was also interested in questions of health and recreation for men of the camps.

By October 1, 1917, the work of the committee was divided into twelve divisions: Food Conservation, Food Production and Home Economics, Education, Women and Industry, Social and Welfare Work, Liberty Loan, Health and Recreation, Child Welfare Organization, Registration, Maintenance of Existing Social Agencies, Home and Foreign Relief.

The general plan for organization formulated by the Woman's Committee left each state free to perfect its organization, as its leaders might think best. Each state, therefore, solved its individual problem in its own way. Alabama centered its efforts on Social Service, Connecticut on Medical

Service, Virginia on Public Health, Nebraska went to work for Food Production. In Illinois meetings for women of foreign birth were held, at which some of them were taught to speak and understand English, and almost every state had some special interest. The organization extended not only throughout the forty-eight states, but throughout the entire territory under the American flag. The Panama Canal Zone, Porto Rico, the Philippine Islands, the Hawaiian Islands and Alaska were all organized. Thousands of women were already mobilized in special organizations. The Needlework Guild of America had two hundred and fifty thousand women ready to engage in war work, the American Red Cross had enlisted over nine thousand trained nurses, before the conference of June 19, 1917, and ninety-five thousand girls organized as the Camp Fire Girls were working with the Red Cross adopting Belgium babies and canning vegetables and fruits.

Members of the committee made tours of certain states assisting in the organization work of those states. After their organization came the registration. Many private organizations had already registered women for war service, among these was the National League for Woman's Service which sought to register the women of the country who wanted paid work under government contracts. The General Federation of Woman's Clubs, and the Daughters of the American Revolution, made a thorough registration of their members. When the Woman's Committee, therefore, announced in July, 1917, a general registration of the women of the country, much confusion arose, but by circulars sent widely through the country, by patriotic meetings, and by the use of the movie theaters, the object of the registration was made clear, and the registration carried out effectively.

The work of the Food Conservation Commission was of very great importance. Mr. Hoover's dictum that "Food will win the War" was recognized as prophetic. President Wilson declared, "Every housewife who practices strict economy puts herself in the ranks of those who serve the nation." Secretary Houston, of the United States Department of Agriculture, issued an appeal to the women of the United States, to save food. And when the President appointed Mr. Hoover as National Food Administrator, one of his first official acts was a call to the women of America. He announced his intention to ask the women to sign a food pledge card. Every effort was made by the Woman's Committee to distribute these cards and have them signed, and if the actual number of signed cards was less than they had hoped, the educational value of the campaign was incalculable.

An immense amount of food was saved as a result of the agitation. Not only did the housewife practice economy but great quantities of food were canned, dried and preserved. In New York City where tons of perishable food are dumped in the river every day, this food was by voluntary labor, sorted, canned and saved. War gardens were instituted throughout the country, and an estimate of the value of the crops raised on back-yard lots shows it to amount to more than $350,000,000. Over 3,000,000 food gardens were planted in 1917, and 119,000,000 quart glass jars were delivered to housewives. This means the conservation of 460,000,000 quarts of food, and in addition several million dollars worth of dried fruits and vegetables were saved.

The work of the Child Welfare Division especially interested the women of the country. Several organizations were already in existence, whose object was to care for the moral and physical welfare of the children. A Children's Bureau in the Department of Labor, headed by Miss Julia Lathrop, of Illinois, had been created, and Miss Lathrop was asked by the Woman's Committee to act as chairman of its Child Welfare Department. The object of the department was to look after the welfare of the children, to keep them in school, and to see that they were decently clothed and well nourished.

The Division on Health and Recreation was interested in the moral and physical welfare of the enlisted men, and was aided by the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A., the Knights of Columbus and other similar organizations. A commission was organized by the War Department to promote rational recreational facilities within and without the camps, and to safeguard the health and morals of the soldiers on land and sea. Under the direction of this commission there were authorized directors of music, libraries, theaters, and athletics, and in these activities women took a large part.

The Division on Patriotic Education found a great work to do. There were three million non-English-speaking immigrants in America, and it was necessary to establish for such foreign grown persons night schools where they might learn the English language, and be informed of the nature of the American Government. Various industrial and social agencies joined in a systematic campaign for this purpose—the "America first" campaign, the object of which is to develop an intelligent American life and citizenship. A national committee of one hundred was appointed by the United States Commission of Education, and many educational institutions and industrial organizations, as well as great national organizations, such as the Sons of the American Revolution, Daughters of the American Revolution, the Y. W. C. A., and the Council of Jewish Women took part in the undertaking. Public mass meetings of women in the interests of patriotic education were held all over the United States at the suggestion of the Woman's Committee. A remarkable work has been done.

The Woman's Committee also took an active part in the various Liberty Loan Campaigns. These were not essentially a woman's activity yet from the beginning the women took an active part in selling and in buying bonds. It is estimated that one-third of all the Liberty Bond buyers were women, and a complete organization was perfected to assist the organizations of the men, in obtaining subscriptions. The Woman's Committee of National Defense turned in the full power of its machinery to assist the Woman's Liberty Loan Committee, and the result amazed not only the national leaders but the women themselves.

Of even greater importance than the work of the women and their great organizations was the work of the women in factories, in the shops, and in the various industries in America. Two millions of women before the war began were included in the ranks of industrial workers, and as millions of men were summoned to the flag, their places were taken throughout the country by loyal and patriotic women. A movement like this deeply affected various woman's organizations.

One of the most important phases of the question of women in industry is that concerning standards, which especially interested the National Woman's Trade Union League of America. Its president was Mrs. Raymond Robbins, of Chicago. This league adopted the following standards to protect the working women in the industrial field. These standards were: the highest prevailing rate of wages in the industry which the contract affected; equal pay for equal work; those trades where there was no wage standard whatsoever to be placed in the hands of an adjustment committee; all wages to be adjusted from time to time, to meet the increased cost of living, by the committee; the eight-hour day; one day rest in seven; prohibition of night work for women; standards of sanitation and fire protection; protection against over-fatigue and industrial diseases; prohibition of tenement-house labor; exemption from the call into industry of women having small children needing their care; exemption from the call into industry of women two months before and after child birth.

Under the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense there were organized in every state committees for the protection of women and children, which worked in connection with the National Woman's Trade Union League and other similar associations, and the standards established by these organizations were in every instance recognized by the government.

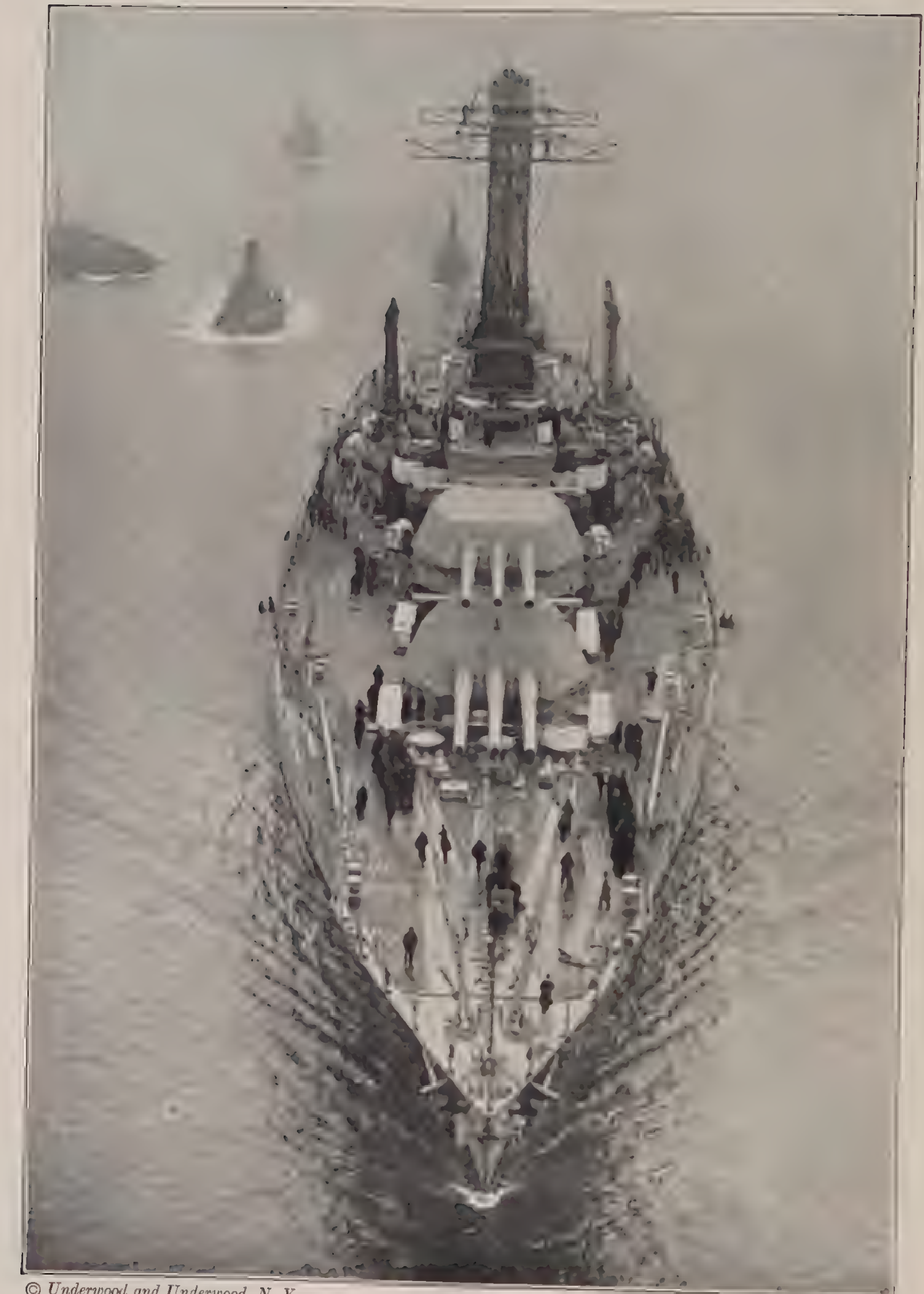
The Committee on Labor appointed by the Council of National Defense, of which Mr. Samuel Gompers became chairman, appointed a sub-committee on Women and Industry, which interested itself in the protection of such women and in their wage standards.

One of the most important phases of the women's work in the war was that connected with their service in the Woman's Bureau of the Red Cross. This work, as well as the work of the Red Cross nurse, and of the Junior Red Cross, was carried on independently of the Woman's Committee, and is described in another chapter.

Photo from Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.

U. S. BATTLE SQUADRON AT SEA

Photograph taken from the deck of the U. S. S. "Pennsylvania" showing a squadron of our powerful superdreadnaughts in column. Though these great ships never had an opportunity to come to grips with the German Navy they performed invaluable service in convoying our troops safely across.



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THE U. S. BATTLESHIP "IDAHO"

Heading the Victory Fleet in its great review in New York Harbor after the close of the war was this new superdreadnaught of 34,000 tons displacement. This great fighting ship is armed with thirty-four guns, of which twelve 14-inch guns compose the main battery. With her sister ships a new class of battleships was formed larger than any other warships in the world at the time of their launching.

The National League for Woman's Service organized nearly three months before this country declared war against Germany was another independent association. Its object was to co-ordinate and standardize the work of the women of America along lines of constructive patriotism, and its president was a member of the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense. The slogan of the organization was "For God, for country, for home," and its work in general was not far different from that of the Woman's Committee of National Defense. It divided the interests of women into thirteen national divisions as follows: Social Welfare, Home Economics, Agricultural, Industry, Medical and Nursing, Motor Driving, General Service, Health, Civics, Signaling, Map Reading, Wireless and Telegraphy, and Camping. Work under these divisions was developed in state and local organizations, each working unit being a detachment of not less than ten and not over thirty women, under the direction of detachment commanders.

The program of these detachments included a standardized physical drill, an annual inspection of detachments, and an annual examination of individuals; promotions to be made on the basis of service and efficiency; annual state or district encampments; an organization uniform to be worn, and an organization badge and insignia.

When America entered the war, before this plan of organization was carried into effect, an emergency program was developed, by the appointment of a temporary state chairman, with temporary state committees and temporary local chairmen to be appointed if possible in every city, town or district throughout the state. In a short time there were complete working organizations in thirty-nine states, and the other nine were partially organized. The first service rendered by this bureau was the mobilization of wage-earning women, to meet the demands for trained woman labor in the government establishments, and in the private factories and mills, working for the government. This was a most difficult undertaking, and was carried out most efficiently. This league also took an active part in all of the phases of patriotic work carried on by American women during the war.

Another great woman's organization, which offered its services to assist in the prosecution of the war was the General Federation of Woman's Clubs, which had a membership of about three million. It was interested in the Children's Bureau, the Public Health Service, Home Economics, Bureau of Markets, and other similar questions. It established a service office in Washington, for the period of the war.

A similar great organization was the Daughters of the American Revolution, with three thousand chapters and one million members spread over the United States. Through its war relief committee it undertook war work of various kinds, and was especially successful in selling Liberty Bonds.

The Women's Christian Temperance Union also rendered enthusiastic service emphasizing the necessity of nation-wide prohibition as a war measure.

The National Congress of Mothers endeavored to extend as far as possible the home influence to the boys in the army and navy camps, establishing united service clubs for this purpose.

The Navy League, which was an outcome of the Spanish-American War, interested itself largely in knitting garments for the soldiers and sailors and in working in the camps. The knitting was done under the direction of the Comforts Committee, and it is estimated that the amount spent in the work of this committee approximated one million dollars.

A National Service School was conducted during April and May, 1917, under the direction of the Navy League to fit American women for the part they must play in the national service. On account of some differences of opinion the approval of the Secretary of the Navy was withheld from the work of the Navy League, and in December, 1917, the Woman's Naval Auxiliary of the Red Cross was organized, and much of the work that was being done under the Navy League was co-ordinated under the new plan.

The League of American Pen Women, including some of the best known women writers of America, turned its full power also to help win the war.

The Camp Fire Girls of America, one hundred thousand strong, were especially active in distributing the food pledge cards, and in caring for children, when their mothers were engaged in patriotic service.

The Girl Scouts of America sold Liberty Bonds, distributed food pledge cards, and engaged in the various forms of war work in every state in the union.

The Woodcraft Girls also did their bit, among other things organizing what were known as Potato Clubs, where prizes were given for the production of potatoes.

The Green Bough is an organization of children which sent aid to the starving children of Europe.

The Associate Collegiate Alumnae offered its services to the government three days after war was declared and issued to ten thousand college graduates an appeal for trained stenographers and secretaries to aid in the work of the government. It also organized a War Service Committee to co-operate with the Speakers' Division of the Committee on Public Information.

The Colonial Dames, and the United Daughters of the Confederacy also did splendid work in various fields.

Volumes might be written concerning women's work in the various states of the union. In each state enthusiastic work was done, very often of an unusual and striking character. The work of the negro women in certain parts of the South for the negro soldiers deserves special mention.

Among other activities of the American women none are more impressive than those devoted to the relief of the unfortunate victims of the war. Various organizations to take charge of this work of charity and mercy were formed, and many of these organizations were combined in the Federal Council of Allied War Charities. This organization had seventy-five separate agencies and raised for war relief nearly thirty million dollars. The first of these societies was the National Allied Relief Committee of New York, organized in July, 1915, to assist the suffering peoples of Europe. Money was raised by contributions and by bazaars, and while this was not strictly a woman's organization it was to the women that much of the credit of their success was due.

Other organizations were the American Committee of the Allied Home Fund, for homeless children and women munition workers; the American Committee of the International Reconstruction League; the American Woman's Hospitals Committee; the National Surgical Dressing Committee; the American Woman's War Relief Fund; and the Stage Woman's War Relief Fund, which developed extensively during the war, and furnished entertainment in the army camps in this country and abroad. Then there were also the Vacation Association, originally organized to enable self-supporting girls and women to save money by proper and healthy vacations, but which developed its work into a Free Employment Bureau for the benefit of those who had lost their positions because of war conditions.

Other organizations were the Flotilla Committee, to provide surgical motors for the advanced trenches, and the Militia of Mercy to care for children afflicted by Infantile Paralysis, and the Committee for Men Blinded in Battle, which has already assisted three thousand men, the Emergency Aid of Pennsylvania and the Commitee of Mercy, the League of Catholic Women of New York, the National Special Aid Society, the Trench Comforts Packet Committee, the Artists' Committee of One Hundred, the White Cross Guard movement, Southern Women's Patriotic Committee, the Physicians', Surgeons' and Dentists' Fund, the Council of Jewish Women, and the Fund for Jewish War Sufferers, the Zionist Organizations, and the Authors' League Fund, all of which have special forms of relief and in all of which women take the main part.

Scores of other charitable organizations of greater or less importance are scattered over the land, which give their sympathy and their help to the suffering in this country and abroad. In such organizations the women are naturally taking the lead, and they have done a wonderful work during the great war.

CHAPTER XXI

The Navy in the War

ON April 6, 1917, when war was declared, the navy was at once mobilized. Josephus Daniels, Secretary of the Navy, issued an order which was sent out from the office of Admiral W. S. Benson, Chief of Naval Operations, placing the navy on a war basis. Mr. Daniels had for several years been developing the efficiency of the American Navy. He had seen for some months that America would be compelled to take part in the great war, and the Naval Department had been working at high speed preparing for active service. The various naval units which were at the beginning of the war associated with the regular navy, were the Naval Reserve Force, the Marine Corps, the Marine Corps Reserve, the Naval Militia and the Coast Guard, all of which were called into active service in connection with the mobilization.

Elaborate plans had been made to provide training camps for new recruits. Besides the men required for duty in the seaman branch the navy needed men for service in special branches, such as artificers, yeomen, electricians, commissary, hospital corps and aeronautics.

The Naval Reserve Force, authorized by Act of Congress August 29, 1916, contained six classes: the Fleet Naval Reserve, composed entirely of ex-service officers and men, which is intended for active duty at sea; the Naval Reserve, composed of ex-merchant marine officers and men, intended for duty on naval auxiliary vessels; the Naval Auxiliary Reserve, composed of officers and men serving on vessels of the United States merchant marine, listed by the Navy Department as desirable auxiliaries, which is intended to serve on such vessels when they are called into active service; and the Naval Coast Defense Reserve, intended for citizens of all ages who are capable of sea service to the navy, or in defense of the coast. This includes owners and operators of yachts and motor power boats, suitable for coast defense, who may have their boats taken over upon payment of a reasonable indemnity.

The Naval Reserve also includes the patrol squadron, planned as a defense of the coast and harbors against the operations of submarines or raiders, the Naval Reserve Flying Corps open to qualified aviators, who might be ordered to duty at sea or on shore where aviators are necessary, and the Volunteer Naval Reserve, who served without pay, and without uniform in time of peace.

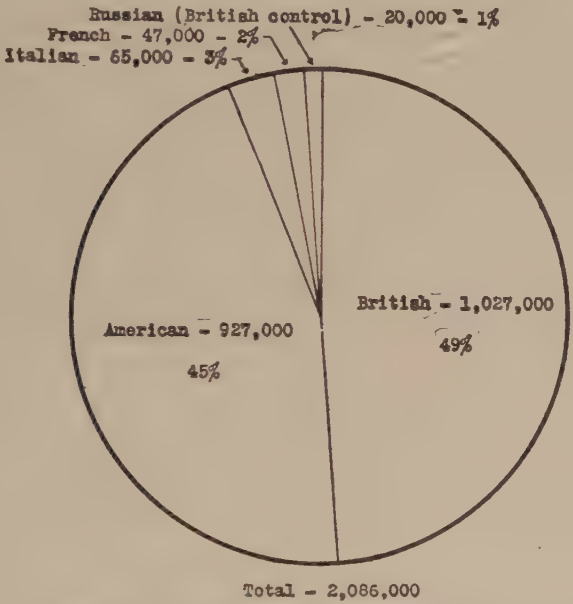
Women may also enter service in the Naval Reserve as telephone switchboard operators, nurses, and yeowomen.

The United States Marines, the "soldiers of the sea," are an independent branch of the military service of the United States, serving under the direction of the Secretary of the Navy. They protect government property and naval stations at home, they furnish the first line of defense of naval bases and stations beyond the limits of the United States. They go with the war ships, act as landing parties at shore, and are used as expeditionary forces and for advance duty. The Marine Corps was first called into existence during the Revolutionary War. It was disbanded at the close of the war, but was reorganized in 1798. It has participated in every expedition and action in which the navy has engaged, and has co-operated in campaigns with the army. The Marine Corps Reserve was authorized by Congress as a reserve force to be trained in time of peace, and called into active service whenever the country is at war.

The Naval Militia has the same relation to the navy as the National Guard to the army. In time of war the Naval Militia become active members of the navy and serve in the main or reserve fleets, wherever they may be assigned.

The United States Coast Guard was established in 1915 to combine the revenue cutter service and life-saving service. In peace times it operates under the Treasury Department. It has for its purpose the saving of life and property from the destruction of the seas. In war times it operates as part of the navy. The United States Junior Naval Reserve was an organization for the training of American boys for the American Navy and merchant marine. These boys are enrolled at small posts throughout the country and are given instruction in naval training in addition to their regular schooling.

A Flying Corps is also associated with the navy. It conducts an aeronautic school at Pensacola, Florida, for a course of training and instruction. At this school men may qualify as mechanics or as flyers. Balloonists are also instructed and dirigible balloons are used at Pensacola for training purposes.



American Troops Carried by Ships of Each Nation

The operations of the United States Navy during the World War have extended all over the world. Its forces have been stationed at Corfu, Gibraltar, along the Bay of Biscay, at the English Channel ports, on the Irish Coast, in the North Sea, at Murmansk, at Archangel, as well as along the coast of the United States and its various territories. Its exploits may not have been as spectacular as that of the army, yet without it our forces at the front could not have carried on the successful campaign that they did. Indeed, they would not have been able to reach the fighting front in great strength.

Naval men have served on nearly two thousand craft that plied the waters—on submarines and in aviation. On land marines and sailors have shared with the army their glorious victories, and gun crews of sailors have manned the monster fourteen-inch guns which were of such notable importance in land warfare.

In the official report of Secretary Daniels the employment of the fighting craft of the navy is summed up as follows: "(1) Escorting troop and cargo convoys, and other special vessels. (2) Carrying out offensive and defensive measures against enemy submarines in the western Atlantic. (3) Assignment to duty and the despatch abroad of naval vessels for operations in the war zone in conjunction with the naval forces of our Allies. (4) Assignment to duty and operation of naval vessels to increase the force in home waters. Despatch abroad of miscellaneous craft for the army. (5) Protection of these craft en route. (6) Protection of vessels engaged in coastwise trade. (7) Salvaging and assisting vessels in distress, whether for maritime causes or from the operations of the enemy. (8) Protection of oil supplies from the Gulf."

It may be added that before the war began, during the period of what was called an armed neutrality, merchant ships were armed by the government for protection against the submarine, and crews from the navy assigned to work the guns.

On April 6, 1917, the day the United States declared war on Germany, there were 364 vessels on the navy list, and the regular navy comprised 64,680 enlisted men and 4,376 officers. On the day the armistice was signed, November 11, 1918, there were no fewer than 2,003 vessels in the service of the navy, and the total personnel had been increased to 540,059—507,607 enlisted men and 32,452 officers. Including the reserves and marines and the several thousand workmen and civilian employees, there were more than 700,000 men and women under the naval establishment.

On the day war was declared the enlistment and enrollment of the navy numbered 69,056 officers and men. On the day Germany signed the armistice, the enrollment of the navy

Table Showing Total of United States Troops Transported and the Ships That Carried Them

Prepared by Ensign WALTER LOGAN, U. S. N., Statistical Officer, Cruiser and Transport Force, United States Atlantic Fleet.

	Carried by United States Naval Transports	No. of United States Naval Transports Sailed	Carried by British Ships	Number of British Ships Sailed	Carried by British-Leased Italian Ships.	No. of British-Leased Italian Ships Sailed.	Carried by Other United States Ships.	Number of Other United States Ships Sailed	Carried by Other Ships (French, Italian, &c.)	Number of Other Ships Sailed (French, Italian, &c.)	Total United States Troops Transported	Total Ships Sailed	Percentage Carried by United States Naval Transports	Percentage Carried by British Ships	Percentage Carried by British-Leased Italian Ships	Percentage Carried by Other U. S. Ships	Percentage Carried by Other Ships	Under United States Naval Escort	Under British Naval Escort	Under French Naval Escort	Percentage Under U. S. Naval Escort	Percentage Under British Naval Escort	Percentage Under French Naval Escort
1917.																							
May	1,035	3	508	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,543	5	67	33	0	0	0	258	1,285	0	17	83	0
June	8,855	9	1,080	1	0	0	5,156	8	0	0	15,091	18	59	6½	0	34½	0	15,032	59	0	99	1	0
July	5,281	8	7,299	6	0	0	0	0	296	1	12,876	15	41	57	0	0	2	10,063	2,566	247	78½	20	1½
Aug	4,310	6	11,890	7	0	0	1,109	2	2,094	2	19,403	17	22	61	0	6	11	12,259	4,129	3,075	63	21	16
Sep.	13,917	15	19,671	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	33,588	27	41	59	0	0	0	17,432	12,898	3,258	51½	39	9½
Oct.	25,098	14	13,013	9	0	0	0	0	1,916	1	40,027	24	62½	32½	0	0	5	36,893	3,134	0	92½	7½	0
Nov.	9,988	9	10,669	7	0	0	1,235	2	1,830	1	23,722	19	41½	46	0	4½	8¼	13,246	10,476	0	56½	43½	0
Dec.	37,445	16	11,370	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	48,815	25	77	23	0	0	0	42,783	6,032	0	87½	12½	0
1918.																							
Jan.	25,662	16	20,514	9	0	0	0	0	1,879	1	48,055	26	53	42½	[illegible]	0	4½	35,827	12,228	0	75	25	0
Feb.	39,977	17	9,259	4	0	0	0	0	3	1	49,239	22	81½	18½	0	0	0	48,795	444	0	99	1	0
Mar.	56,278	26	27,626	14	0	0	1	1	1,895	4	85,710	45	65	33	[illegible]	0	2	73,095	12,615	0	85	15	0
Apr.	67,553	27	47,362	20	2,626	2	737	11	1,794	3	120,072	63	56	39½	2	1	1½	91,308	28,764	0	75½	24½	0
May	96,273	33	133,795	75	12,127	6	3,288	22	2,231	5	247,714	141	39	53½	5	1½	1	220,463	26,652	599	88½	11	½
June	115,256	36	140,172	70	14,465	7	6,003	11	4,538	4	280,434	128	41¼	50	5	2¼	1½	244,631	30,912	4,891	87½	11	1½
July	108,445	33	175,526	89	11,502	7	4,020	13	11,866	5	311,359	147	35	56½	3½	1	4	258,332	46,329	6,698	83	15	2
Aug.	116,401	36	137,745	74	9,376	6	8,495	15	14,358	9	286,375	140	41	48	3	3	5	237,920	22,572	25,883	83	8	9
Sep.	107,025	35	134,576	69	7,082	4	5,511	18	5,506	3	259,670	129	41	52	3	2	2	224,298	20,681	14,691	86	8	6
Oct.	72,092	43	94,214	57	11,098	7	4,709	17	1,950	3	184,063	127	39	51	6	3	1	130,274	51,454	2,335	70½	28½	1
To Nov. 11.	1,191	9	10,698	12	0	0	235	3	0	0	12,124	24	10	88	0	2	0	7,451	4,673	0	61¾	38¼	0
Total..	912,082	391	1,006,987	546	68,246	39	40,499	123	52,066	43	2,079,880	1,142	43¾	48¼	3	2½	2½	1,720,360	297,903	61,617	82¾	14⅓	3⅓

had increased to 540,059 men and women, for it became necessary to enroll capable and patriotic women as yeomen to meet the sudden expansion and enlarged duties imposed by war conditions.

The expansion of the navy before the war began had been very great. In 1912 there were 3,094 officers, and 47,515 enlisted men. By July 1, 1916, the number enrolled was 4,293 officers and 54,234 enlisted men. Again during that year it was increased to 68,700 men, and Congress had authorized the President to augment that force to 87,800 men. On the outbreak of the war the navy was recruited to its full strength, and it was found that there were not sufficient officers for war work.

The necessary reserves were found in the Naval Militia. This organization in 1913 was under state control with no federal supervision. In 1914 a Naval Militia under federal control was created with provision for its organization and training in peace as well as its utilization in war. It, however, could not be used outside the territory limits of the United States, and to overcome this difficulty, the National Naval Volunteers were created in August, 1917. Under this act members of the Naval Militia organization were authorized to volunteer for any emergency.

Other laws, included in the same measure, provided for a reserve force,—with increase of the officer personnel in each corps to correspond with the increases in the number of enlisted men,—for a Naval Flying Corps, special engineering officers and the Naval Dental and Dental Reserve Corps. It also provided for taking over the Lighthouse Division in time of war. On July 1, 1917, the number of officers was increased to 8,038, the number of enlisted men to 171,133. By April, 1918, there were 18,585 officers and 283,777 men. When the armistice was signed there were 32,452 officers and 507,607 men. The development of the aviation corps in the navy was even more striking. When the war began the naval aviation was still in its infancy. On July 1, 1917, there were only forty-five naval aviators. On July 1, 1918, there were 823 naval aviators, with approximately 2,052 student officers and 4,000 ground officers. In addition there were more than 7,300 trained mechanics, and more than 5,400 mechanics in training. The total enlisted and commissioned personnel at this time was about 30,000 men. On the day war was declared 197 ships were in commission. On December 8, 1918, there were 2,003, which were all furnished with trained officers and men, and crews and officers for many of the new merchant marine were supplied by the navy.

The first duty of the navy after its entrance into the war was the destruction of the submarine menace.

It was the illegal warfare conducted by Germany through her submarines that brought America into the war. In her desperation Germany was attempting to blockade the coasts of France and Great Britain by the use of these treacherous craft. Unless the dangers of the submarine were overcome America would not be able to aid the Allies with either men or supplies. Her ships could not cross the ocean, and Germany would win the war. All of the energy available then for new construction was directed toward vessels to deal with the submarine menace. More than 350 one-hundred-and-ten-foot wooden submarine chasers were completed during the first year of the war. Of these, fifty were transferred to France, and fifty more were ordered to France and completed during the second year. Orders for the construction of destroyers were placed which not only used up all capacity for production for more than a year, but required a great expansion of the existing facilities.

Contracts were made for four battleships, one battle cruiser, two fuel ships, one transport, one gunboat, one ammunition ship, 223 destroyers, 58 submarines, 112 fabricated patrol vessels, including 12 for the Italian government, 92 submarine chasers, including 50 for the French government, 51 mine sweepers, 25 seagoing tugs, and 46 harbor tugs besides a large number of lighters, barges, and other minor harbor craft. Ships launched during the year up to October, 1918, included one gunboat, 93 destroyers, 29 submarines, 26 mine sweepers, four patrol vessels, and two seagoing tugs.

There were added to the navy during the year two battleships, 36 destroyers, 28 submarines, 355 submarine chasers, 13 mine sweepers, and two seagoing tugs. There were also added by purchase, charter, etc., many hundred other vessels of various kinds, from former German Trans-Atlantic liners, to harbor tug boats and motor boats. During the year 1918 the construction of large vessels was to a great extent suspended. It was indeed only continued upon vessels which had already made material progress toward completion.

One of the first forms of mobilization was the organization of a fleet of mosquito craft to patrol the Atlantic coast, and keep on the watch for submarines. Many of these boats had been private yachts, and others were especially constructed for this kind of patrol duty. Hundreds of young men from the colleges were included among those who volunteered for this work. War zones were established along the whole coast line of the United States. The harbors were barred at night, and every endeavor made to prevent attacks by German submarines. The government also seized all wireless stations in the United States and dismantled those that the government did not need to use.

One hundred and nine German ships which had been interned in American ports were seized. The Germans had endeavored to sink these ships, or prevent them from being useful by damaging their machinery, but they were all repaired and became an important part of our transport fleet. As new vessels were constructed, it was necessary to train crews for them on a large scale. Naval camps, therefore, were established at various points. The main ones were those at League Island, Philadelphia, Newport, Cape May, Charleston, Pensacola, Key West, Mare Island, Puget Sound, Hingham, Norfolk, New Orleans, Santiago, New York Navy Yard, Great Lakes, Pelham, Hampton Roads and Gulf Port.

In connection with these camps schools in gunnery and engineering were established, and the training of gun crews by target practice became an important part of this work. Not only was this training done in connection with the big guns, but also with guns of smaller calibre, which were especially useful in the attacks that were made upon the submarine. One month after the declaration of war a division of destroyers was in European waters. By January 1, 1918, there were 113 United States naval ships across, and in October, 1918, the number had reached 338 ships of all classes. There were 5,000 officers, and 70,000 enlisted men serving in Europe, a greater force than the full strength of the navy when the United States entered the war.

The destroyers had their base at Queenstown, where every facility was provided for the comfort and recreation of the officers and men. The destroyers and patrol vessels waged an unceasing offensive warfare against the submarine. And it may be noted that the losses by submarine which had reached their highest mark in April, 1917, began to diminish on May 4, when the American destroyer fleet arrived at Queenstown. Indeed, they were thoroughly prepared when they arrived for the work before them.

The first fleet was under the command of Admiral William S. Sims. When they arrived, the British Commander who came to welcome him asked: "When will you be ready for business?"

"We can start at once," replied Admiral Sims promptly.

The Americans were in fact prepared, except that their uniforms were too light for the cool climate. The appearance of the American flotilla at Queenstown being the first appearance abroad of their new ally was made a most important occasion by the English. Streets were decorated with the Stars and Stripes, moving pictures were taken by the official British government photographer, and the water front was lined with an excited crowd carrying small American flags with much cheering and great enthusiasm.

At the time of the appearance of the American fleet the danger from the German submarine was at its height. The monthly loss of merchant vessels for the Allies, and especially by Great Britain, had mounted to a dangerous point. The whole power of the American fleet, therefore, was directed against the submarine. Many new methods were used with different degrees of success. In the first place merchantmen were armed and provided with trained gun crews. In some cases what were called mystery ships were built, which presented the appearance of unarmed merchantmen, but which would suddenly expose a powerful armament when the submarine came within reach.

The arming of the merchantmen did a great deal to lower the percentage of losses, and was bitterly resented by the Germans, as was shown in the case of Captain Charles Fryatt, a gallant British seaman and master of the steamship Brussels, who was captured by the Germans, courtmartialed and executed, because of his endeavor to fight when an officer of a merchant ship.

Merchantmen were also instructed to pursue a zigzag course if attacked, and they were kept continually informed of the presence of submarines, and the safest courses to follow. At certain points great nets were used and blockades composed of anchored mines.

The most effective means, however, of destroying the submarine seems to have been the organized efforts of the destroyers. The whole sea near Great Britain and France was divided into districts and each district carefully patrolled. When the submarine appeared its appearance was immediately reported to a central base, and destroyers were at once sent circling round the point where the submarine had been discovered. As the submarine could only travel at a certain amount of speed during a given time under water, it was possible to calculate when the locality was known about how far from that point it would be found at any later period. In course of time the submarine would be compelled to come up for air, and then it would be likely to find its foe waiting for it. When the destroyer discovered the submarine it wasted no time in maneuvering, but immediately endeavored to ram, dropping death bombs as it passed over the point where it supposed the enemy to be. These bombs were constructed to explode under water, and the force of the explosion was so great that even though the bomb did not strike the submarine, it might seriously damage it and even throw it out of the water, when it would be at the mercy of its foe.

Another effective weapon against the submarine was the plunging shell, which was fused to burst both on contact and at a certain depth beneath the water. Airplanes also and the small dirigible balloons, known as "blimps," not only aided in discovering the submarine but were able to drop bombs upon the point where they were observed. As the result of the intensified effort of the American and allied forces, the losses of merchant ships diminished rapidly in 1917, and by 1918 had almost disappeared.

The second duty of the American fleet was to escort and guard vessels carrying troops and supplies between the allied countries. This was done by the escort system, which proved an almost complete defense against the danger of such submarines, as were able to pass through the allied blockade. Secretary Daniels in his report of December, 1918, said that this convoy system was suggested by President Wilson, and he continues: "It is probably our major operation in this war, and will in the future stand as the greatest and most difficult troop transporting effort which has ever been conducted across seas."

In this report he summarizes the work of the American escort vessels during July and August, 1918. During that period 3,444,012 tons of shipping were escorted to and from France by American escort vessels. Of the tonnage escorted into French ports, only 16,988 tons were lost through enemy action, and of the tonnage escorted out from French ports only 27,858 tons were lost through the same cause. During the same period 259,604 American troops were escorted to France by United States escort vessels without the loss of a single man through enemy action. During the same period destroyers based on British ports supplied seventy-five per cent of the escort for 318 ships, totaling 2,752,908 men, and including escorted vessels carrying 137,283 United States troops, with no loss through enemy action. During the war American and British ships have carried over two million American troops overseas; 924,578 of these troops were transported under escort of the United States cruisers and destroyers. In these operations not one east-bound American transport has been torpedoed or damaged by the enemy and, according to Secretary Daniels, only three were sunk on the return voyage. The three American troopships sunk were the Antilles, President Lincoln and the Covington. There were three fighting ships lost, the patrol ship Alcedo, the torpedo boat destroyer Jacob Jones, and the cruiser Santiago.

The most serious loss of life was the loss of the coast guard cutter Tampa, with all on board, in Bristol channel on the night of September 26, 1917. The Tampa had gone ahead of her convoy, and the exact manner in which the vessel met its fate is unknown. In addition to these vessels mentioned by Secretary Daniels as being lost in connection with the convoy, the Tuscania was sunk in February, 1918, with a loss of 204 men, the Oronsa with a loss of three men, the Moldavia with a loss of fifty-five men, and several other transports were torpedoed with a slight loss, but were able to proceed to port.

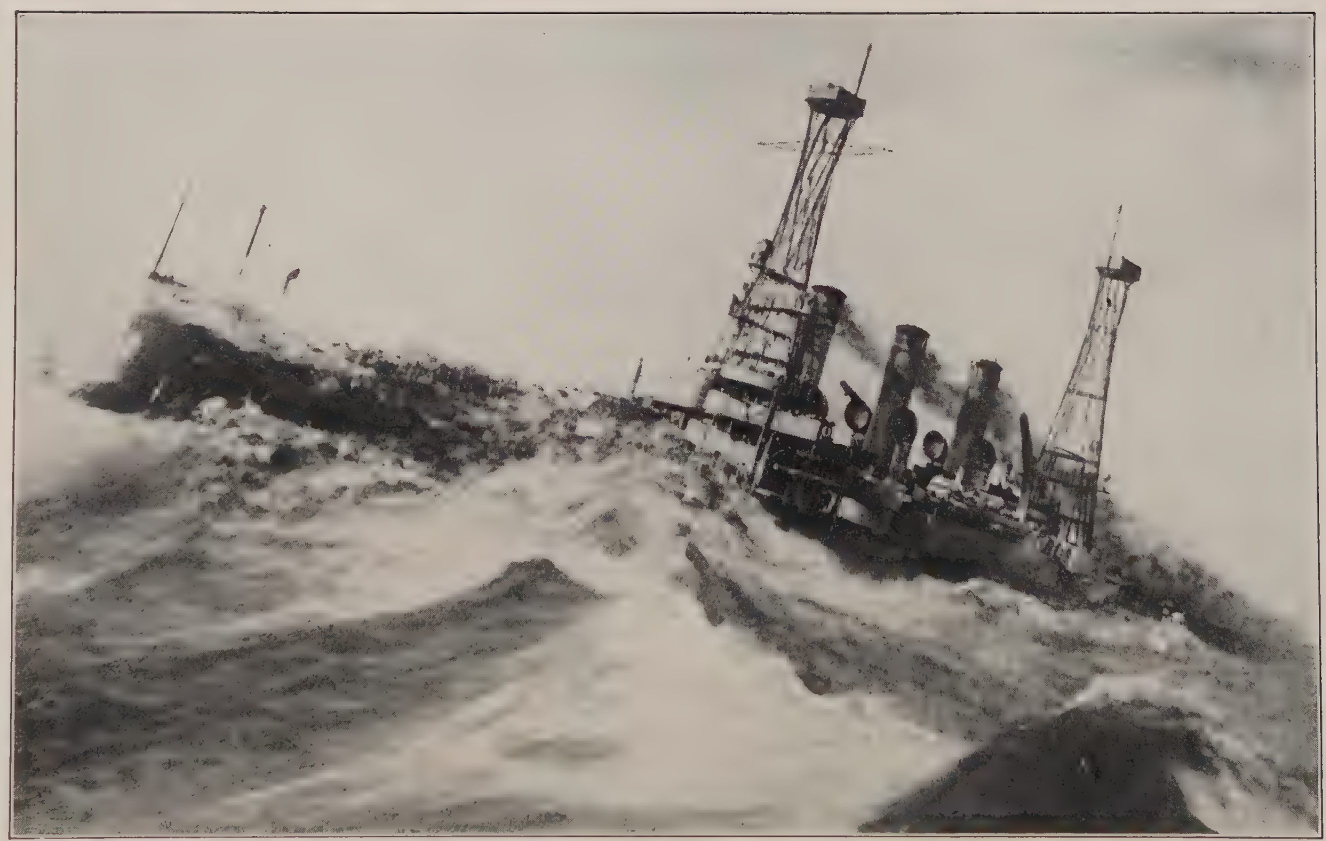
Besides the war against submarines, and the escort of naval convoys, the American Navy took an active part in the blockade of Germany, in connection with the English fleet, and also operated the transportation service which grew during the war from ten ships to a fleet of 321 cargo carrying ships, with a deadweight tonnage of 2,800,000 tons. This vast fleet was officered and manned with a seagoing personnel from the American merchant marine, the officers and men of the United States Navy and graduates of technical schools and training schools developed by the navy since the United States entered the war, some 5,000 officers and 29,000 enlisted men being required for the operation of this fleet. The navy also took part in the war on land, land batteries of fourteen-inch naval guns on railway mounts on the western front being manned by bluejackets under the command of Rear-Admiral C. P. Plunkett.

The great deeds of the Marine Corps are also a part of the history of the American Navy in this war. With only 8,000 men engaged casualties numbered 69 officers, 1531 men dead, and 78 officers and 2,435 men wounded. Only fifty-seven United States Marines were captured by the enemy. The Marine Corps played a vital part in holding the German drive near Château-Thierry, and participated in the hard fighting near Rheims and in Champagne, and won for itself imperishable glory.

Among the officers who especially distinguished themselves were Admiral Sims, Commander-in-Chief of American Naval Forces in European waters, Rear-Admiral Rodman, in command of the American battleships with the British fleet, Vice-Admiral Wilson in France, Rear-Admiral Niblack in

FIGHTING OFF A GERMAN U-BOAT

An American battleship crew at quarters engaged in firing on a submarine which had accidentally come up within range.



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THE BATTLESHIP "VERMONT" IN A STORMY SEA

Forging steadily ahead beside troopships laden with precious American soldiers this great fighting machine was a terror to lurking submarines.

the Mediterranean, Rear-Admiral Dunn in the Azores, Rear-Admiral Strauss in charge of mining operations and Rear-Admiral Earle, head of the Bureau of Ordnance.

The following tables from the report of Secretary Daniels to President Wilson show the number of American vessels sunk by the enemy, their tonnage and the number of lives lost:

Naval Vessels	No.	Tons	Lives
From April 6, 1917, to November 11, 1918:			
By Submarines	14	103,583	677
By Mines	5	45,356	54
By Collision	15	30,794	65
Miscellaneous	14	31,128	348
Total of navel vessels	48	210,861	1,144
Merchant Vessels			
From August, 1914, to April 6, 1917:			
By Submarines	15	53,671	63
By Mines	5	10,770	4
By German Cruiser—Eitel Friedrich	1	3,374	
From April 6, 1917, to November 11, 1918:			
By Submarines	124	244,385	342
By Raiders	6	4,388	
Total of merchant vessels	151	316,588	409
Grand total	199	527,449	1,553

The Antilles, the President Lincoln and the Covington were the only actual troop ships lost in the war by the cruiser and transport force. The Westbridge, a cargo carrier, reached a French port, the Mt. Vernon also got to port.

Full reports from the commanding officers of these vessels are on record. From the report of Commander Daniel T. Ghent, the following selections are taken, as a typical description of the experiences of American transports which were victims to German submarines:

> We left October 15th for America with the transports Henderson and Willehad in the convoy, and the Corsair, Kanawha and Alcedo as escort. All zigzagged as we knew the waters to be infested with submarines. The second day we were forced to reduce our speed to permit the Willehad, which had been feeling the heavy seas, to regain formation. Passing through submarine zones everyone is on edge, and when fire was discovered early the following morning on the promenade deck everyone was stimulated to swift action. The fire was soon under control. A half hour later just before daylight a torpedo was sighted heading for us two points abaft the port wheel. It was at least four hundred feet distant when sighted.

The helm was put hard over to dodge, but the torpedo hit near the after engine room on the portside.

The explosion was terrific. The ship shivered from stem to stern, listing immediately to port. A lookout on the main top was thrown clear of his five-foot canvas screen and killed. Guns were manned instantly but no submarine was seen. The engine room filled with ammonia fumes from the hoist machine and dynamo, and it was believed everyone on duty in the engine room was instantly killed or disabled, except one oiler. Within a few seconds after the explosion the water was over the crossheads of the main engines, which were still turning over slowly. Of the twenty-one on duty in the engine and fire room only three escaped. Two firemen got through a ventilator safely.

That only four boats out of ten succeeded in getting clear was due to several causes, the short time the ship remained afloat, the headway left on the ship due to the fact that the engine room personnel was put out of action, rough seas, listing of the ship, and destruction of one boat by the explosion. The behaviour of the men was equal to the best traditions of the service. The two forward gun crews remained at their stations while the ship went down, and made no move to save themselves until ordered to leave their stations. Radio Electrician Ausburne went down with the ship while at his station in the radio room. Ausburne and McMahon were asleep in the adjacent bunks opposite the radio room.

Realizing the seriousness of the situation, Ausburne told McMahon to get his life preserver on, saying as he left to take his station at the radio key, "Good-bye, Mac."

McMahon later finding the radio room locked and seeing the ship was sinking tried to get Ausburne out, but failed. The Henderson made a thick screen of smoke which completely hid her from view as soon as she saw what had happened. The Willehad made off at her best speed. The Corsair and Alcedo circled for two hours when the Alcedo began the rescue of survivors, and the Corsair continued to look for the submarine. The Antilles had 234 men on board. Too much credit cannot be given to the officers and men of the Corsair and Alcedo for their work, whole-heartedness and generosity. The work of their medical officer was of the highest.

An instance comes back to me of the coolness of the gun's crew. One member was rescued from the top of an ammunition box, which by some means had floated clear, and in an upright position. He semaphored the Corsair not to come too close, when he saw her approaching to pick him up as the box contained live ammunition.

The reports of Commander P. W. Foote, of the President Lincoln, and Captain R. D. Hasbrouck, of the Covington, tell very similar stories. After the President Lincoln had sunk, a large German submarine emerged and came among the boats and crafts searching for the commanding officer, and some of the senior officers whom they desired to take prisoners. The submarine commander was able to identify only one officer, Lieutenant E. V. M. Isaacs, whom he took on board.

During the last year of the war the appropriations by Congress for the navy amounted to $3,250,000,000. In the regular appropriation bill signed on July 1, 1918, several changes of policy in connection with the navy were embodied. Among them was the abolition of the seniority rule, and the establishment of the method of promotion by selection throughout the navy. This was strongly approved by Secretary Daniels. Another was the abolition of the National Naval Volunteers, and the transfer of the members thereof to the Naval Reserve. The permanent enlisted strength of the navy was increased from 87,000 to 131,485 men, and it was provided that an increase of officers should come automatically with the increase of ships and the men to man them. In the end the new law will give eighteen additional rear admirals, seventy-two captains, 125 commanders, and over sixteen hundred of the lower grades of service. The Marine Corps was permanently increased to seventy-five thousand men, with one new major-general, one temporary major-general, six brigadier-generals, twenty-two colonels, and twenty-two lieutenant-colonels. The sum of $220,000,000 was provided for aviation, and large appropriations made for ordnance. The bill also directed the construction of a modern dry-dock at Charleston, S. C., which could be used by ships of only the dreadnought type.

CHAPTER XXII

The Story of the Marines

IT is fitting that separate record should be made of the United States Marine Corps' share in the World War. This famous organization has a tradition that makes of it one of the corps d'elite of the world.

Although it is part of the organization of the Navy Department it operates on land and in the air as well as at sea. Its insignia—the globe, the anchor and the eagle—are emblematic of the variety of its service.

The record of the marines in the World War is in keeping with the best traditions of that spirited organization. No branch of any service on either side had a prouder record.

That portion of the marines in France which served with the 2d Division formed the 4th Brigade and consisted of the 5th and 6th Regiments and the 6th Machine Gun Battalion. Their activities were as follows:

Verdun sector	Mar. 12 to May 14, 1918
Château-Thierry sector	May 31 to July 9, 1918
Soissons offensive	July 18 to July 20, 1918
Marbache sector	Aug. 9 to Aug. 20, 1918
St. Mihiel offensive	Sept. 9 to Sept. 16, 1918
Champagne offensive (Blanc Mont)	Sept. 30 to Oct. 9, 1918
Meuse-Argonne offensive	Oct. 30 to Nov. 11, 1918
March to the Rhine	Nov. 17 to Dec. 13, 1918
Army of Occupation, Germany	Dec. 1 to ———

There were 30,821 marines sent overseas as follows:

Naval Headquarters, London	77
Expeditionary Detachment, Azores	120
First Marine Corps Aero Company	69
Detachment, Cardiff, Wales	97
Ships Detachments	1,300
Navy Personnel	937
American Expeditionary Forces	27,721
Twelfth Replacement Battalion A. E. F	500

Of these 59.4 per cent were engaged in actual battle.

The following decorations were bestowed upon officers and men of the Marine Corps:

	Officers	Men	Total
Medal of Honor	1	4	5
Distinguished Service Medal	4	1	5
Distinguished Service Cross	87	256	343
Croix de Guerre (French)	198	863	1,061
Legion of Honor	7	...	7
Ordre de la Couronne—Chevalier	1	...	1
Croix de Guerre (Belgian)	...	1	1
Medaille Militaire	...	1	1
	298	1,126	1,424

In addition to the individual citations given in the above table two regiments of marines, about 3,000 men each, and one machine-gun battalion of 600 men were cited, and two of the organizations were cited twice. This gives every man in the organizations the croix de guerre.

The casualty list is given in detail below:

Killed in action:	Officers	49
	Men	1,553
		1,602
Died of wounds:	Officers	30
	Men	796
		826
Died of disease:	Officers	18
	Men	280
		298
Accidentally killed:	Officers	1
	Men	13
		14
Died (other causes):	Officers	2
	Men	5
		7
Total of death (all causes):	Officers	100
	Men	2,647
		2,747

Wounded (severely):	Officers	9
	Men	1,951
		2,043
Wounded slightly:	Officers	0
	Men	608
		608
Wounded (degree undetermined):	Officers	146
	Men	5,985
		6,131
Total wounded:	Officers	238
	Men	8,544
		8,782
In hands of enemy:	Officers	0
	Men	0
		0
Missing:	Officers	0
	Men	132
		132

The marines who served at Château-Thierry sector, Bouresches, etc., etc., were mainly the 5th and 6th Regiments and the 6th Machine Gun Battalion. Other units, from which replacements were drawn and a portion of whose personnel fought in different actions as such replacements, were the 11th and 13th Regiments and various base detachments, etc.

The average percentage of marines with the Service of Supplies back of the lines was 18.6.

Marine Corps aviators formed the day wing of the Northern Bombing Group. Marine avaiators served with Squadrons 213 (Pursuit Squadron), 217 and 218 (Bombing Squadrons), of the Royal Flying Corps of Great Britain, and with pursuit, observation and bombing squadrons of French Flying Corps.

A tribute to the valor and vigor of the entire 2d American Division with which the marines were brigaded at Château-Thierry was given in the following report of the German Intelligence Section which was captured later by the French:

"The 2d American Division may be considered a very good division, perhaps even an assault division. The various attacks of the two regiments upon Belleau Wood were executed with dash and intrepidity. The moral effect of our fire was not able to seriously check the advance of the infantry. The nerves of the Americans are not yet worn out."

During the war, the following troops of marines served with the American Expeditionary Forces in France: 5th Regiment, 6th Regiment, 1st Machine Gun Battalion, 1st, 2d, and 3d Replacement Battalions, 1st Machine Gun Replacement Battalion, 3d, 4th, 5th, and 6th Separate Battalions, 1st and 2d Casual Replacement Battalions, 1st Separate Machine Gun Battalion, and 13th Regiment, totaling 495 officers and 19,807 men; and a part of the 11th Regiment, totaling 45 officers and 1,514 men.

The Secretary of the Navy's recital of the gallant work of the marines was included in Chapter X, "America's Glory at Château-Thierry."

General Orders No. 46, Headquarters of the 2d Division of the American Expeditionary Forces in France, dated July 21, 1918, paid this tribute to the marines:

> It is with keen pride that the division commander transmits to the command the congratulations and affectionate personal greetings of General Pershing, who visited the division headquarters last night. His praise of the gallant work of the division on the 18th and 19th is echoed by the French High Command, the 3d Corps commander, American Expeditionary Forces, and in a telegram from the former division commander. In spite of two sleepless nights, long marches through rain and mud, and the discomforts of hunger and thirst, the division attacked side by side with the gallant 1st Moroccan Division and maintained itself with credit. You advanced over six miles, captured over 3,000 prisoners, 11 batteries of artillery, over 100 machine guns, minnenwerfers, and supplies. The 2d Division has sustained the best traditions of the Regular Army and the Marine Corps. The story of your achievements will be told in millions of homes in all allied lands tonight.

The following letter from the mayor of Meaux, dated June 26, 1918, to the commanding general of the 2d Division, American Expeditionary Forces, with which the marines were serving is self-explanatory:

On behalf of all the mayors of the Meaux district assembled in congress at the city hall, I have the honor to send you herewith a copy of the resolution they have taken in order to pay homage to the gallantry displayed by the troops under your command and to the effectiveness of the help they rendered us.

The civilian population of this part of the country will never forget that at the beginning of this month of June, when their homes were threatened by the invader, the 2d American Division victoriously stepped forth and succeeded in saving them from impending danger.

I am personally happy to be able to convey to you this modest token of their thankfulness, and I am, General,

Yours, respectfully,
(Signed) G. LEEGOL,
Mayor of Meaux, Député de Seine et Marne.

RESOLUTION

The mayors of the Meaux district, who were eye witnesses to the generous and efficacious deeds of the American Army in stopping the enemy advance, send to this army the heartfelt expression of their admiration and gratefulness.

Meaux, June 25, 1918.

THE PRESIDENT OF THE COMMITTEE,
(Signed) G. LEEGOL.

Official commendation of the bravery of the marines was given in this telegram from the expeditionary commander-in-chief to General Omar Bundy, their divisional commander:

Please accept for the division and convey to General Harbord and the officers and men under him my sincere congratulations for the splendid conduct of the attack on the German lines north of Château-Thierry. *It was a magnificent example of American courage and dash.*

PERSHING.

CHAPTER XXIII

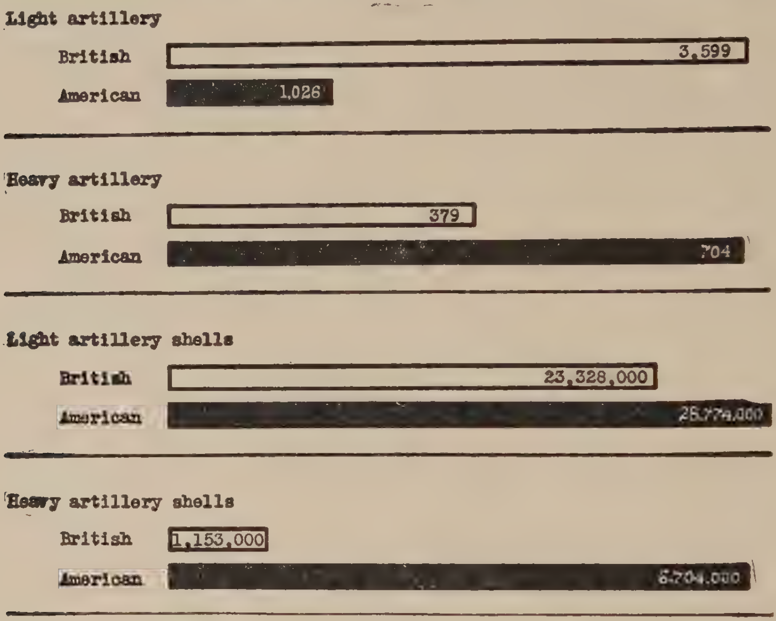
AN AVALANCHE OF MUNITIONS

THE great war was not a war of armies against armies alone, but of peoples against peoples. To put in France an army of two million men in nineteen months was an extraordinary feat. The armies, however, had to be equipped and supplied, and for this purpose it was necessary to enlist the full power of the American workshops and factories, and the mobilization of industry and production of munitions was quite as important as the organization and training of troops.

When the war first began, the gravity of the situation was hardly realized. It was even thought that America could do her part without sending troops abroad, that the armies of the Allies were competent to defeat the Central Powers, and that the financial and moral support of America would be all the aid which America need give. There was even open opposition among many patriotic citizens to sending troops out of the country.

As the months passed by, however, it became plain that the situation of the Allies was a serious one. Men were needed, for France had been bled white, and the operations of the German submarines were so effective that it was no easy task for America to send to Europe either troops or munitions. America found it necessary, therefore, not only to ship food to the Allies and give them the aid of their financial support, not only to send them munitions of war, but to collect a great army herself, and to equip that great army and train it so that it could be able to face the veteran German troops.

During the summer of 1917, continual conferences took place between American representatives and allied leaders, and the American plans developed as the result of such conferences. In the Supreme War Council General Bliss represented the United States, General Foch represented France, General Robertson, Great Britain. Premier Clemenceau of France, Winston Churchill, the British Minister of Munitions, and Lloyd George, the Prime Minister of England also took part. One of the outcomes of these conferences was what may be called the International Ordnance agreement. The substance of this agreement was cabled to Washington by



British and American Production of Artillery Ammunition Produced

General Bliss, and in order to understand the American policy, the essential parts of this agreement must be kept in mind:

The representatives of Great Britain and France state that their production of artillery (field and heavy) is now established on so large a scale that they are able to equip completely all American divisions as they arrive in France during the year 1918, with the best make of British and French guns and howitzers.

The British and French ammunition supply and reserves are sufficient to provide the requirements of the American Army thus equipped at least up to June, 1918, provided that the existing six-inch shell plants in the United States and Dominion of Canada are maintained in full activity, and provided that the manufacture of six-inch howitzer carriages in the United States is to some extent sufficiently developed.

> On the other hand the French, and to a lesser extent the British, require as soon as possible large supplies of propellants and high explosives, and the British require the largest possible production of six-inch howitzers from now onward, and of eight-inch, and nine and two-tenth-inch shells from June onward.
>
> In both these matters they ask the assistance of the Americans. With a view, therefore, first, to expedite and facilitate the equipment of the American Army in France, and second, to secure the maximum ultimate development of the ammunition supply with the minimum strain upon available tonnage, the representatives of Great Britain and France, propose that the American field, medium and heavy artillery be supplied in 1918, and as long after as may be found convenient from British and French factories, and they ask: (*a*) that the American efforts shall be immediately directed to the production of propellants and high explosives on the largest possible scale; and (*b*) Great Britain also asks that the six-inch, eight-inch, and nine and two-tenth-inch shell plants already created for the British service in the United States, shall be maintained in the highest activity, and that large additional plants for the manufacture of these shells shall at once be laid out.
>
> In this way alone can the tonnage difficulty be minimized, and potential artillery development, both in guns and shells, of the combined French, British and American armies be maintained in 1918 and still more in 1919.

According to this agreement, therefore, American troops in France during the year 1918 were to be equipped with British and French guns and howitzers, and America was to devote her energy to the production of munitions of high quality, with the object of bringing the full weight of American power into the conflict, not in the year 1918, but in 1919 or even in 1920. The collapse of Germany in 1918, therefore, occurred before the American force had been developed to its utmost, and thus gave opportunity to the superficial critic who observes that the American troops in France were dependent upon French and English supplies.

The American Army in France had few American airplanes, it had few American guns and none at all from America of certain essential calibres. It used no American gas shells, and was largely equipped with French and British machine guns. But the impression produced by such criticism would be entirely unjustified. The American production of munitions was in reality an amazing feat, and although the full force of her effort was not felt because of the sudden ending of the war, the supplies furnished by her to the allied troops exceeded many times those furnished to her troops, by the English and the French.

A recollection of the developments of the war during the years 1917–18 will make plain the soundness of the allied and American strategy. When America entered the war in 1917, Russia was still in the field and nearly half of the German armies was employed in operations against them. The Allies largely outnumbered the German forces. Their need was not of men but of supplies.

It was the collapse of the Russian power during that year that enabled the Germans to throw their full force upon their western front, and it was this that made it necessary for America to send over troops as rapidly as possible. The British and the French being already able to supply these troops, it would be unwise for America to waste her time in producing quickly munitions of an indifferent class. The Russian collapse, therefore, brought about the change in policy, and the spring of 1918 showed the German armies fighting desperately to win the war before America could use its strength.

If Germany had been disposed, after the tide of battle turned against her, to fight as desperately on the defensive as the French had done in the first days of the war, in defense of Paris, the war might easily have lasted as predicted by the military experts of the Allies throughout the year 1920.

American munitions were not largely used by American troops during 1918. This, however, was not the result of the inefficiency of American production, but a condition arising from the agreements of America with the Supreme War Council of the Allies in accordance with a well-reasoned plan. The millions of men sent across the ocean during the year 1918 were more than three times the number contemplated for that period during the previous year. These reinforcements to the allied man-power were absolutely necessary, and the necessity of sending them interfered with the shipping of supplies.

Lieutenant-Colonel Repington, the British military critic, sums up the situation as follows: "The British War Cabinet implored America to send in haste all available infantry and machine guns, and placed at her disposal, to her great surprise, a large amount of transports to hasten arrival. The American Government acceded to this request in the most loyal and generous manner. Assured by their Allies in France that the latter could fit out the American Infantry divisions on their arrival with the guns, horses and transports, the Americans packed their infantry tightly in the ships, and left to a later occasion the despatch to France of guns, horses, transports, labor units, flying service, rolling stock and a score of other things originally destined for transport with the divisions.

If subsequently, and indeed, up to the day that the armistice was signed, General Pershing found himself short of many indispensable things, and if his operations were thereby conducted under real difficulties, of which he must have been only too sensible, the defects were not due to him and his staff, nor to the Washington administration, nor to the resolute General March and his able fellow-workers, but solely to the self-sacrificing manner in which America had responded to the call of her friends.

The work done by the Ordnance Department of the United States, under the admirable direction of Benedict Crowell, Assistant Secretary of War and Director of Munitions, was an immense one, and full of complexities. The ordnance does not mean artillery alone. The American ordnance catalogue of supplies contains more than 100,000 separate items. Thousands of these had had to be designed and produced for the first time during the war.

When America entered the war not only was her army so small that its power would not have been felt if it had been sent to Europe without reinforcement, but its equipment was comparatively meager, and there was in the country but little knowledge of the technique of ordnance production. The whole commissioned personnel of the American Ordnance Department consisted of ninety-seven officers, only ten of this number were trained so as to be able to design artillery weapons. For the army, which it was planned to put in the field, would be needed eleven thousand trained officers. To take care of this need alone from the civilian population would be an extraordinary feat.

In 1914 there were but six government arsenals and two private ordnance works able to produce heavy weapons. During the period before our entrance into the war, many war industries sprang up and sent their product to the armies of the Allies, but there were only about twenty firms manufacturing artillery ammunition, big guns, rifles and machine guns for the Allies. On November 11, 1918, nearly 8,000 manufacturing plants were working on ordnance contracts for the United States.

During this period wonders were done. Thousands of new kinds of ordnance had to be produced, many of which were entirely unknown to the American experts. The Allies furnished plans, specifications, working models, secret devices and complete manufacturing processes. New factories were built, new tools constructed, and new methods of production organized.

Some idea of ordnance development since 1914 may be obtained by enumeration of some of its more important items. In the artillery, for instance, we find the baby two-man cannon of thirty-seven millimeters, used by troops in the field against machine-gun emplacements. Then there were the famous 75's, and guns of similar size used in shelling the enemy's middle area. Then came the eight-inch and nine and two-tenth-inch howitzers, with the 240-millimeter howitzer.

Then there were the great guns running from eight-inch to fourteen-inch in calibre used in pounding the depots in the enemy's back area. These weapons were of tremendous weight, and required especially strengthened cars to enable them to be fired from a standard heavy railway track. For such guns as these, immense quantities of shell or shrapnel had to be produced, and an immense amount of heavy equipment manufactured to drag them into place. Then, too, repair shops must be fitted out for each division, with base repair shops of three times as great capacity as all the manufacturing arsenals in the United States in time of peace.

Millions of shoulder rifles and millions of cartridges for them had to be manufactured, and machine guns by tens of thousands. Then came sighting instruments of the most delicate kind, and hundreds of thousands of automatic pistols for the personal equipment of each soldier, and trench knives with heavily weighted handles. Then there were mortars, the sizes ranging from the three-inch Stokes to the great 240-millimeter trench gun, with a great variety of bombs and shells; and hand grenades, some of them gas grenades, some molten metal grenades, some paper grenades to kill by concussion, and rifle grenades, fitted on the muzzle of a rifle.

In addition there were the Livens projectors to throw gas containers, and bayonets, and bolos, and helmets, periscopes, range finders, and most important of all, tanks—the "whippet" tanks, the six-ton tanks, and the heavy tanks. And there were also the machine guns for airplanes, incendiary bullets for hostile balloons, tracer bullets and many ingenious contrivances to assist the airman's accuracy; the drop bombs for the bombing machines; the personal equipment of the troops, their belts, haversacks, their holsters; cutlery for the mess, shotguns and hundreds of similar items.

Many of these articles had never been made in this country, many of them never before made in any country, while some, of course, such as automobiles, trucks, mess equipment and the like were familiar enough. Moreover, the demand for munitions was very much greater than would be expected from the numerical expansion of the army.

When an army is doubled in number it takes approximately twice as much clothing as before, but the consumption of ammunition in the time of war is increased many times. In the present war, the increase was startling.

In the American Civil War, at the Battle of Gettysburg, the Union forces expended 32,781 rounds of artillery ammunition. In the battle of the Somme, the British expended four million rounds, while in the battle of St. Mihiel, the United States used 1,970,217 rounds of artillery ammunition.

The use of artillery, preceding infantry action, had enormously increased, and as the war developed there was an increasing tendency to depend upon the mechanical or machine gun methods of fighting as opposed to those emphasizing the human factor. An army machine gun in time of peace might need for practice 6,000 rounds a year. In the great war, one such gun would need 288,875 rounds of ammunition. A three-inch field gun, in time of peace, would use 125 rounds of ammunition a year. In the war, the estimated supply for each gun was 22,750 rounds for each gun.

Many more guns were used in the great war than ever before. In the equipment for a division in the United States in time of peace each infantry division was supposed to have fifty machine guns. When the war ended, such a division would have 260 heavy machine guns, and 768 light automatic rifles. If the war had continued, an additional number of automatic rifles would have been added to the divisional equipment. Horses were much less used. This meant an enormous use of gasoline motors. The total cost of the ordnance estimated as necessary for the American Army was between twelve and thirteen billions of dollars.

The successful accomplishment of the task set before the American Ordnance Department was one of the most remarkable performances in connection with the war. It was only made possible by the fact that the American people have an astonishing gift for organization, that the country contains enormous stores of raw material, and the selective service law left in the workshops a splendid body of skilled mechanics and men of engineering skill, perhaps superior to those of any other nation.

In nineteen months America produced over 2,500,000 shoulder rifles, many more than those produced by either France or England in the same period; 2,879,000,000 rounds of rifle and machine-gun ammunition were also manufactured, a quantity somewhat less than that produced by France or England this being due to the fact that France and England had their production in a higher state of development at the beginning of this period, while America had to begin almost at the beginning.

America also produced as many machine guns and automatic rifles as did Great Britain during this time, an extraordinary feat when we remember how long a time must elapse before machine-gun factories can be properly equipped for work. America's production of high explosive shells.

U. S. Official Photograph.

POUNDING AWAY AT THE GERMAN LINES

A battery of trusty "75s," so well-beloved by French artillerymen, was in equally high favor with the Yanks, who worked this type of field-piece with record speed.

U. S. Official Photograph.

WITH THE HEAVIES IN THE ARGONNE

At dawn, as "good morning" to the Hun, this American battery of "155s" lets go a salvo onto the enemy's lines north of the Argonne Forest.

BREAKING THE GERMAN LINES AROUND ST. MIHIEL

Neither German artillery barrage, machine-gun fire nor rifle volleys could stop the determined advance of Pershing's fighters in this decisive action.

gas shell and shrapnel was similarly developed, and in the last months of the war practically in all such forms of munitions the American Ordnance Department was producing a greater quantity than any other nation.

When it is said that the American Army found it necessary to purchase much artillery and other supplies abroad, it must be remembered that it was constantly selling ordnance, or material for munitions to the allied governments. From April 6, 1917, to November 11, 1918, purchases from allied governments amounted to $450,234,256. The sales from the Ordnance Department to the allied governments amounted to $200,616,402, while the sales by other United States manufacturers was $2,940,787,984. The sales to the allied governments were five times the purchases.

BUILDING A GUN

The first, and perhaps the most important form of munitions is the gun. The technical history of warfare is very largely a story of gun development. In times of peace, military powers are constantly experimenting and inventors are constantly planning to obtain more powerful guns. The problem is not simply the production of the gun that can fire a very great distance. If that were all, the famous long-range gun of the Germans, which was used against Paris in the spring of 1918, would be the greatest gun in the world. Such a gun, however, should be considered rather as a freak, than a useful weapon of warfare. It would be soon worn out, and the damage inflicted by it was not proportionate to the expense.

Something more is necessary than great range for a gun's successful use. It must be possible to transport it readily, and it must have a reasonably long life, and a possibility of repair. Closely connected, therefore, with the manufacture of such guns must be the production of a gun carriage, which must be able to take care of the recoil of the gun. The gun also to be useful must be capable of being fired rapidly. The 75-millimeter gun of our modern army can be fired at the rate of twenty shots a minute. The larger guns set up on railway mounts, as well as on fixed emplacements, usually are fired but once a minute. Rapid firing heats the gun and lessens its life. To produce guns, therefore, of great range, of power, which can be quickly moved, quickly fired, and readily repaired is the object of the artillery experts.

In the production of a fourteen-inch gun it may require thousands of workmen and more than ten months of time to produce the gun ready for the first test. One such gun costs $200,000. The life of such a gun at the normal rate of firing is 150 shots, each of which will last about one-fiftieth of a second. The gun, therefore, which has taken ten months to build has a life of only three seconds. Such a gun, however, may be repaired so as to be fit for service without great expense or time. To be a useful weapon it must be made of the very best material and constructed by expert workmen. Before the war, very few such guns were manufactured in any country in the world, except in Germany. There were only two manufacturers in the United States who had the equipment for the manufacture of these guns.

Before America entered the war, the gun makers of this country were fully occupied with orders from the French and English armies, and this work which was immediately useful for the Allies was allowed to go forward. American manufacturers were also sending to Great Britain and France great quantities of partly finished ordnance material. At this time there were nineteen factories which were practically at full operation. The number employed in this production by October, 1918, was more than 42,000. The producton of the gun, however, was not the whole story. Each one of these guns had to be equipped with mechanism to take up the recoil, to render it mobile on the field.

The manufacture of the equipment was in reality the most difficult problem presented to the government. The recoil mechanism known as the recuperator has to be finished with the precision of a watch. The action of a 240-millimeter recuperator after a shot is equivalent to stopping a locomotive engine traveling at fifty miles an hour in less than four feet in half a second. American ingenuity, however, was equal to the situation. The obstacles in the way were overcome, and the recuperators began to come.

The smallest weapon of all the field guns built in America was a French 37-millimeter gun. This was dragged along by foot soldiers and used to break up machine-gun nests, and German concrete pill-boxes. The most useful piece of artillery was the 75-millimeter gun which made up almost half of the American field artillery. Other important big guns were the 155-millimeter howitzer, which previous to the war had only been built in France, and the anti-aircraft guns on truck mounts which were a development of the war.

An interesting feature of ordnance production is what may be called railway artillery. When the war began many heavy guns, which were being used in coast defense or by the navy, were in the possession of the United States. To make them available for use the Ordnance Department devised the plan of mounting them on railway cars. Mortars on railway cars had been used in the American Civil War, and later artillery so mounted had become a feature of the American coast defense.

The construction of railway mounts for great guns became an important feature of munition work. Each unit is a heavy train in itself with ammunition cars, fire-control cars, spare parts cars, and supply cars as well as the mount for the gun. After each discharge the whole mount moves backward along the track for twenty or thirty feet.

EXPLOSIVES, PROPELLANTS AND ARTILLERY AMMUNITION

While America was thus struggling with the problem of producing great and small guns, with the idea of using them in quantity in the year 1919, and relying upon the allied Governments for her needs in 1918, her production of explosives, propellants and artillery ammunition was being stimulated to the utmost. It was these munitions which the armies of France and Great Britain needed most. The result was an enormous production of such munitions, no other phase of the ordnance program being developed to such a degree. The propellant is the powder that sends a shell from a gun, the explosive is the bursting charge in a shell.

In the nineteen months during which America was a belligerent, America produced 632,504,000 pounds of propellants. In those same nineteen months France produced 342,155,000 pounds, and Great Britain 291,706,000 pounds, America, therefore, producing about as much as England and France together. During the same period, America produced 375,656,000 pounds of explosives. In those same months, England produced 765,110,000 pounds of such explosives, while France produced 702,964,000 pounds. In the last month of the war America was producing 42,775,000 pounds, France was producing 17,311,000 pounds, and England 12,550,000 pounds. In the production of artillery ammunition at the end of the war, America was producing 7,044,000 rounds as against 7,748,000 rounds for Great Britain, and 6,661,000 rounds for France.

The slow American production of such explosives was due to the fact that when America entered the war the existing American explosive manufacturers were operating to their very limit, for the allied governments. Even though the business had increased enormously they had fallen short of meeting demands. It was necessary, therefore, for the Ordnance Department, while not interfering with the great production then going on for the Allies, to expand enormously the facilities for further production. And that meant the production of entirely new manufacturing plants. Fifty-three such plants were undertaken at a cost of $360,000,000. By the end of the war, most of this construction work was completed and in full operation.

The problem of the Ordnance Department, however, was not simply how to increase production. It was necessary to make careful investigation and experiment to decide upon the best policy in the selection of explosives, and the production of material necessary for their manufacture. The standard filling scheme was as follows: "Trinitrotoluol—T. N. T.—for shell, between and including the calibres of 75-millimeter and 4.7-inch; amatol for shell of calibres between 4.7-inch and 9.2-inch, including the latter; ammonium picrate for shell of ten-inch calibre and higher." To obtain the raw materials necessary for the production of these explosives was a most difficult undertaking, and necessitated the invention of many new processes.

The term propellant includes smokeless powder and black powder. In 1914, America was able to produce 1,500,000 pounds of smokeless powder each month. When America entered the war, this capacity had been increased about thirty times, and the entrance of America indicated the necessity for a greater increase. New smokeless powder plants were, therefore, constructed, the two largest being the Old Hickory plant, near Nashville, Tenn. and the Nitro plant near Charleston, W. Va.

The Old Hickory plant was the biggest plant of its kind in the world, with a capacity of one million pounds a day, built at a cost of nearly $90,000,000. It covers an area of 5,000 acres, and in connection with it there was built a city housing twenty odd thousand people, with schools, churches and other city features. The plant at Nitro has a capacity of 625,000 pounds a day and it also necessitated the building of a large town for the housing of its workmen. In making smokeless powder new processes were invented diminishing the time required. The question of black powder did not present many difficulties, it being produced at the rate of 840,000 pounds a month when the armistice was signed.

The problem of loading powder into fixed ammunition was quite as important as the problem of manufacturing it, and required the establishment of great plants and the labor of thousands of operators. The manufacture of the shell was also an important phase of munition work and several new inventions to improve the efficiency of the shell were produced. Among these were two improvements invented by Major F. R. Molton, who before the war had been Professor of Astronomy at the University of Chicago. Major Molton designed a plan for remedying the inaccuracy of the six-inch shell by redesigning the rotating band, and he also elongated the nose of the shell and tapered its sides making the first American stream-line design. This added two or three miles to the range.

SIGHTS AND FIRE-CONTROL APPARATUS

Another matter of immense importance was the production of sights and fire-control apparatus. The old days for firing a cannon point blank at an invisible enemy are gone by. Artillerists are now firing at objects below the horizon or behind hills and mountains. This is what is known as indirect firing, and has been brought to great perfection. By it when an enemy battery has been discovered, attacking gunners located miles away, the battery is destroyed with an avalanche of shell. Or a wall of missiles is laid down a few yards ahead of a body of advancing troops, and kept steadily moving forward ahead of the moving soldiers. This is called the barrage. To obtain such results, fire-control apparatus must be of extreme precision.

Among the instruments of the artillery officer are aiming circles, azimuth instruments, battery commander telescopes, prismatic compasses, plotting boards, and field glasses. In aiming the gun there are sights of different types, elevation quadrants, clinometers and other instruments. One of the most important of these is the panoramic sight, used in firing at an unseen target. Other instruments such as range deflection boards, deviation boards and wind indicators, also self-luminous aiming posts used at night, and on airplanes, sights to aid the pilot in dropping bombs under gun fire—all these had to be provided.

To produce apparatus of this kind in the quantities desired was no easy undertaking, and many of the firms engaged in the optical industry before the war were under German influence. Optical glass was procured almost entirely from Germany. To meet the situation it was necessary to increase the existing facilities and to convert other industries to the production of fire-control material. This was done with great success, and though American fire-control instruments did not reach the front in large numbers, great quantities were in process of manufacture, and if the war had lasted another year the American product would have cared for all of the needs of the army.

The manufacture of optical glass, after a number of unsatisfactory experiments, was referred to the Geophysical Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution, which by November, 1917, had solved the problem, and was producing large quantities of optical glass of good quality.

MOTORIZING THE FIELD ARTILLERY

Another feature of the production of the Ordnance Department was the complete motorization of field artillery. Previous to our entry into the war our field artillery had been drawn by horses, but the horse was now replaced by mechanical power. Trucks necessary for this purpose were readily produced by the various American motor companies. For moving large guns caterpillar tractors of various types were employed.

One of the most striking, and also most important weapons produced by the great war is what is known as a tank. The terrific destruction caused by the machine guns and other instruments of precision had directed the attention of every inventive mind in the allied armies to some method of protection for advancing troops, but not until the tank appeared did it seem that any successful attack upon entrenched soldiers could be made without terrific loss. It is still undecided as to whom the credit of the invention should be given. The fundamental feature of the tank is the caterpillar tractor device which enables the tank to overcome almost any kind of obstruction. This was invented by an American. The French, however, were the first to build tanks, and the French government awarded the medal of the Legion of Honor to a French ordnance officer, whom it hailed as the tank's inventor. The French, however, built their tank only as an experiment and did not use it. It was the British Army which first used the tank in actual fighting, but the British Navy produced the first ones made in England. Tanks were first brought forth as a surprise during the great British drive for Cambrai. They found great favor, and as the war continued were used by both sides in increasing numbers.

AMERICAN-MADE TANKS

When the United States entered the war, it had no special knowledge of the methods of tank construction. Experiments, however, were at once made and it was decided to supply the American Army with two kinds of tanks—one of the large size, such as those used by the British, and the other a small two-man tank. After consultation with the British

General Staff, it was agreed that 1,500 of the large size would be constructed, England to furnish the hulls and ammunition, while the United States furnished the power plant and driving details. More than seven hundred of these tanks had been completed when the war came to an end; 1,450 All-American tanks of the large type were also in process of construction at that time. The approximate cost of such a tank is $35,000. Contracts for 4,440 of the small tanks, known as the Renault tank, were made, each machine costing $11,500. These were being finished and sent in in October, sixty-four being completed when the armistice was signed. Two other types of tanks were also being produced, one a two-man tank weighing three tons, built by the Ford Motor Company, costing about $4,000, the other, a successor to the Renault, but somewhat larger and more powerful. The end of the war prevented the full development of the American plans.

THE MACHINE GUN—AN AMERICAN INVENTION

Another important weapon produced under the direction of the Ordnance Department was the machine gun. This is an American invention. An American invented the first machine gun, and another American invented the gun which was mainly used. Still another gave the American forces the most efficient machine gun ever put into action. The first machine gun was invented by Richard Jordan Gatling in 1861. Sir Harlem S. Maxim invented the Maxim gun, now known as the Vickers gun, used by the English army. John M. Browning invented the Colton machine gun, while the American inventor, Colonel I. N. Lewis produced what is considered in America the best machine of all, the Lewis gun. Before America entered the war, the Secretary of War had appointed a board of five army officers and two civilians to study the machine-gun situation. Six months before we declared war, the War Department, acting on a report received from this board, contracted for four thousand Vickers machine guns. This was a gun of the heavy type, and the board recommended that further tests be made of other guns.

When the war began, the American Army was in possession of 670 Benét-Mercié rifles, 282 Maxim guns, 353 Lewis guns, and 148 Colt guns. There were only two factories in the United States producing machine guns in quantities. It was, therefore, necessary to build up new factories for producing such guns. A contract was at once made with the Savage Arms Corporation for 1,300 Lewis guns, an order which was subsequently greatly increased; and 2,500 Colt guns were also ordered from the Marlin-Rockwell Corporation.

Meanwhile the tests were continued, bringing to the front two new weapons of special merit. These were the Browning heavy machine gun and the Browning light automatic rifle. These, with the Lewis gun, were recommended by the board to the Ordnance Department, and preparations were at once made for an enormous manufacture of such guns.

An improved type of the Marlin gun, which originally was the old Colt machine gun, invented by Mr. Browning, was used in airplanes, so constructed that it could be centralized to fire through the whirling blades of an airplane propeller. This gun was so successful that in 1918 the French tried to secure Marlins from this country.

During the nineteen months of the war America produced 181,662 machine guns and machine rifles, as against 229,238 by France, and 181,404 by England during the same period. American troops, which first went to France were equipped with weapons supplied by the French government, but after May, 1918, the heavy machine-gun equipment of these troops was American built, and after June, 1918, all American troops were supplied with a full equipment of American guns.

RIFLE PRODUCTION

One of the great feats of the war was the rifle production of the United States. From the very beginning each rifleman of the 2,000,000 soldiers sent to France carried his own gun. Some of these were the Springfield rifles, the most accurate and quickest firing rifle that had ever come from an arsenal. Using this rifle the army shooting teams had, time after time, won the international competitions. When the war began, the ordnance officers studying the rifle problem perceived that it would be impossible to equip our troops with this rifle. The demand for such rifles by our country prior to 1917, had been so small that the output of them from the Springfield armory had been greatly reduced, and the skilled artisans once employed in their manufacture had been dispersed. After every effort to gather these men again, and to speed up production, it became plain that they could not begin to supply the quantity of rifles which would be necessary. To extend the manufacture of Springfields to other plants would be extremely difficult, for the rifle is of a very intricate construction, and it would take many months to build up adequate manufacturing equipment.

On the other hand, many American private corporations were already engaged in the production of rifles on a huge scale for the British and French Governments, and they were entirely unable to turn out every rifle that the American Army required. These private plants were making the British Enfield rifle, which is a weapon of comparatively simple construction, and which was regarded by the American rifle experts as an inferior weapon. It was, however, superior to the French or the Russian rifle.

The Ordnance Department was confronted by a difficult decision. If they continued to manufacture Springfields there would be great delay in equipping the troops. If they accepted the Enfields the American troops would have an inferior rifle. It was found, however, that it was possible to modify the Enfield so that it could use American ammunition, without very great delay, or any fundamental change in machinery used in its manufacture. And this was the course decided upon.

The first rifles were delivered to the government in August, and ten months after we declared war against Germany our production was twice as large as that of Great Britain for that time. The production of Enfields and Springfields during the war was 2,506,307 guns. Of these 312,878 were Springfield rifles. The Enfield rifle as modified turned out to be very successful, and possessed the advantages of accuracy and speed over the German Mauser.

The American Army was also armed with a good automatic pistol, of which 743,663 were produced during the war period. This turned out to be a very effective weapon, of special usefulness in trench fighting. The nations of Europe had neglected to secure a valuable weapon, and their revolvers were but toys compared with the American automatics. The Colt automatic was the weapon approved for the army. In order to increase pistol equipment 153,311 Smith and Wesson revolvers were also purchased. The production of small arms ammunition was handed over to the American Society of Manufacturers of Small Arms Ammunition. Many plants for the production of such munitions already existed. These were increased and others added. The total production of ammunition for all the small arms increased month by month. For the month of November, 1917, it was 156,102,792 rounds, for November, 1918, it was 3,507,023,300.

The great war was to an unusual degree a war in trenches, and trench warfare produced a number of weapons which were entirely novel. As soon as America entered the war a trench-warfare section was organized in the Ordnance Department to take charge of the production of these novelties. There were some forty-seven new devices, many of them extremely difficult to make. In producing these new devices the government co-operated with private manufacturers, many of whom were joined in formal associations. One of these was a Hand Grenade Manufacturers' Association, another the Drop Bomb Manufacturers' Association, another the Six-inch Shell Trench Mortar Manufacturers' Association, and there was the Rifle Grenade Manufacturers' Association, and the Livens Projectors Manufacturers' Association.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRENADE

One of the most important of these new weapons was the hand grenade. Grenades had been used before the war but they were crude weapons of no very great importance. The new hand grenade was a carefully built weapon. There were seven different kinds of hand grenades, the defensive hand grenade, made of metal to be thrown from trenches, the offensive grenade, made of paper, to be thrown during an attack. As they were made of paper there were no pieces of metal to fly back and wound the thrower. The third development was a gas grenade filled with poisonous gas, a fourth was filled with phosphorus which released a cloud of smoke, a fifth was a combined hand and rifle grenade, a sixth was of an incendiary type, used to destroy structures under attack, the seventh was the thermit grenade, which melts and developes an intense heat. These were used to destroy captured guns.

The first defensive grenade designed by the Americans turned out to be a failure. It had been made too safe. It required five movements to touch off the fuse, and in the excitement of battle the American soldier usually forgot to go through these operations. This meant the scrapping of a great mass of munition. Before the war was over, the production of grenades of all kinds was in rapid progress, and while only a small proportion had been sent overseas, the production at home had become enormous.

The production of rifle grenades was delayed until they were fully designed. The rifle grenade is made to fit on the holder at the muzzle of an ordinary service rifle. When the rifle is fired the bullet passes through a hole in the middle of the grenade, and the gases follow the bullet through the grenade about two hundred yards. In endeavoring to produce this weapon in imitation of the French no consideration was taken of the difference between the French bullet and our bullet. The result was that some 3,500,000 completed grenades had to be salvaged. After the rifle grenade had been redesigned their production proceeded with great rapidity.

POISON GAS

Use of poisonous gas was another extraordinary feature of the war. At the great conference in 1899, many of the prominent nations of Europe and Asia pledged themselves not to use any projectiles, whose only object was to give out suffocating or poisonous gases. Germany signed and ratified this pledge, but the United States never signed it. The first use of toxic gases in the great war was on April 22, 1915, when the Germans employed it in an attack against the French and British lines on the upper Ypres salient. After Germany had thus determined to use poisoned gas, the allied nations were compelled to adopt the same policy, and as a matter of fact, the allied nations and America at the time of the armistice were producing such gases in much greater quantities than was possible in Germany.

When America entered the war, it was soon discovered that private chemical companies were unwilling to undertake the manufacture of poison gases. The government, therefore, adopted the plan of building various chemical plants at the Edgewood Arsenal in connection with the filling plant. In June, 1918, the Chemical Warfare Service was organized, and the Edgewood Arsenal was transferred to it. In the meantime, the government had been able to persuade a number of private chemical firms to manufacture toxic gases, the government agreeing to finance all new construction.

The poison gases used in the war were of various kinds. That used by the Germans in their first attack on the defenseless Canadian troops at Ypres was chlorine. Afterward came the mustard gas, properly called dichlorethyl sulphide. Other common gases were phosgene and white phosphorus. Against most of these gases masks specially prepared offered a reasonable protection. In the production of such masks came another duty for the Ordnance Department.

The full force of the American work in the manufacture of gases was not felt because of the unexpected ending of the war. It is an open secret that poison gases of terrific power had been prepared by the American experts, but perhaps some of the current reports to the extent of this power may be taken with a grain of salt.

When gas was first used it was thrown out in the form of a gas cloud from pressure tanks, and success was dependent upon conditions of the weather. Other means of throwing such gases, were, therefore, devised. Sometimes the gas was enclosed in shell shot from the big guns of the artillery, sometimes it was in grenades thrown by hand from the trenches and sometimes it was thrown by an ingenius invention, known as the Livens projector.

The Livens projector was a deep secret until the close of hostilities. It was composed of long steel tubes buried in the ground from which drums filled with gas, about twenty-four inches long and eight inches in diameter were projected at the throwing of an electric switch so that a veritable rainfall of them would come hurtling down upon the enemy a mile or more away. The manufacture of such projectors as well as of the trench mortars of various kinds, became one of the most important phases of the tremendous task of the Department of Munitions.

CHAPTER XXIV

FIGHTING THE WAR ON AMERICAN FARMS

NO factor was more vital in winning the World War for American democracy than the American farm. Long before the United States entered the war, it was recognized throughout the world that food would win the war. Without American wheat, corn, livestock and other foodstuffs the British, French, Belgian and Italian Armies would have succumbed. The civilian populations of these nations would have demanded peace upon any terms.

It was the administrative genius of an American, Herbert C. Hoover, that led the food army of America in this world crisis. Calm in the midst of panics, with a foresight and judgment that commanded the admiration of the civilized world, he marshalled the forces of food production, food conservation and food distribution in an array that supplied the fighting and civilian elements struggling against German autocracy until victory crowned the gigantic effort.

Back of Hoover rallied American farmers, farmers' wives and farmers' children, with a loyalty and an energy unparalleled in any time and any clime. Responsive to every suggestion, they were as truly a part of democracy's army as the soldiers who fought in the front line. Their loyalty was sanctified by the presence of their sons and their neighbors' sons upon the battlefields of France. The world owes a debt to the American farmer, a debt that future generations will freely acknowledge.

On August 10, 1917, the Congress of the United States passed the Food and Fuel Control Act. The Provision of the Act outlining its scope reads as follows:

> That by reason of the existence of a state of war it is essential to the national security and defense, for the successful prosecution of the war, and for the support and maintenance of the army and navy, to secure an adequate supply and equitable distribution, and to facilitate the move-

ment of foods, feeds, fuel, including fuel oil and natural gas, and fertilizer and fertilizer ingredients, tools, utensils, implements, machinery and equipment required for the actual production of foods, feeds, and fuel, hereafter in this Act called necessaries; to prevent, locally or generally, scarcity, monopolization, hoarding, injurious speculation, manipulations and private controls, affecting such supply, distribution, and movement; and to establish and maintain governmental control of such necessaries during the war. For such purposes the instrumentalities, means, methods, powers, authorities, duties, obligations and prohibitions, hereinafter set forth, are created, established, conferred and prescribed. The President is authorized to make such regulations and issue such orders as are essential effectively to carry out the provisions of this Act.

The method by which this law undertook to control food and fuel was by the establishment of a system of licenses. By the control of licenses of dealers and by acting as a purchasing agent of food supplies it found itself possessed of great power. When America entered the war the most urgent need was not men and munitions but food and ships. America itself was already suffering from the scarcity of food, but it now became necessary to supply food, not only to itself but to its allies.

A serious situation was presented. The American food situation had become serious before the war began. Food production had not kept pace with the growth of the population. Indeed, the relative volume of agricultural industry had been steadily declining and the export of foodstuffs decreasing for many years. The main cause of this was the tendency of Americans to abandon agriculture and concentrate in cities. This naturally led to a shortage of farm labor.

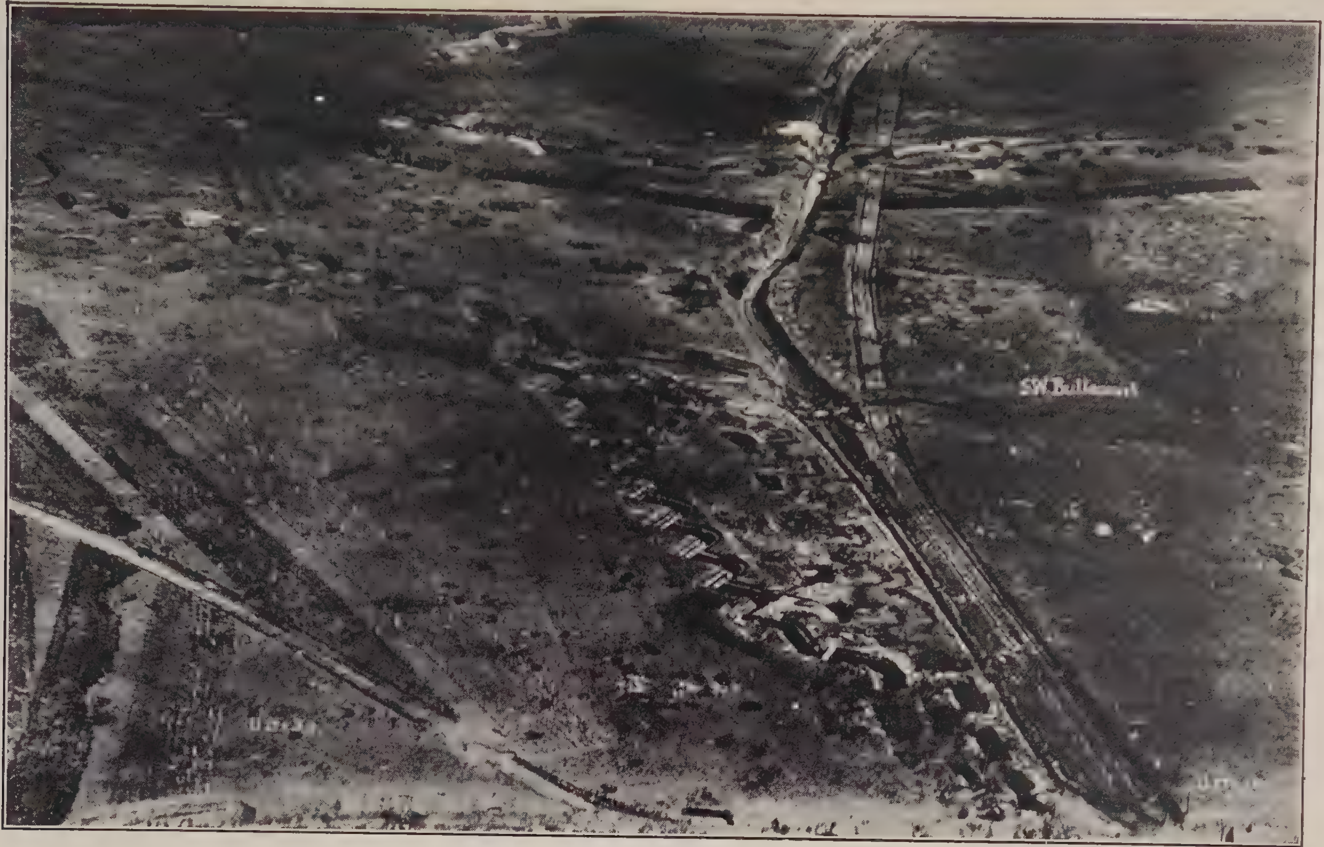
When the war began the movement from the farm to the city was accelerated by the high wages offered by munition manufacturers. Indeed, in portions of the country one could see the abandoned farms. Prices were steadily growing higher. The shortage of labor and the high prices led many farmers to kill and sell their stock, even their breeding stock, and while our exports of foodstuffs increased about the beginning of the year 1917, our granaries and larders were barer than they had been for many years. To some extent also middlemen and speculators added to the danger by imposing upon the consumers unreasonably high prices.

In Europe the able-bodied men among the Allies were on

U. S. Official Photograph.

TAPPING THE GERMAN WIRES

A U. S. Signal Corps officer experimenting with telephone apparatus left behind by the enemy in his hurried retreat from the St. Mihiel sector; Essey, Meurthe et Moselle, September 19, 1918.



U. S. Official Photograph.

THE FAMOUS HINDENBURG LINE FROM THE AIR

A remarkable aerial photograph of this noted stronghold which can be seen zigzagging off into the distance. This line of defenses with its reserve and communication trenches clearly to be seen in the rear, heavily armed and fortified, was considered impregnable by the Germans until it was smashed by the Allies in the great final offensive which ended the war.

the fighting line. Even in peace times England, France, Italy and Belgium needed outside help for their food supplies. Indeed, taken together, these countries ordinarily produced only about sixty per cent of the grain necessary for their bread. With the war the grain of Russia could not be exported, and the grain of Bulgaria, Roumania and Serbia went to the Central Powers. Australia and India could help much less than ever before, because of the scarcity of ships, and the loss through submarines.

America then was the only resource. It was its great duty to supply the food for the great armies of the Allies,—armies in the field, armies in the war industries, and the armies of women and children at home. If America should fail, the war would be lost.

It was under such circumstances that Congress passed the Control of Food and Fuel Act. Prices in the United States of all forms of foodstuffs had at that time enormously increased. When Senator Gallinger, of New Hampshire, presented to the Senate on May 2d a table showing a comparison of prices in April, 1914, with those of April, 1917, the table included sixty items with an average increase on all items of 85.32 per cent.

President Wilson had been using all his authority to cope with the food crisis, and had declared that it was absolutely necessary for Congress to give him greater power to prevent hoarding and speculation, and to regulate the distribution and consumption of food. He declared his intention to appoint Mr. Herbert C. Hoover as Food Administrator. Mr. Hoover had already attained world-wide fame through his supervision of the Belgium Relief movement, a movement in which the people not only of America, but of all the world had united to save the stricken people of Belgium from starvation.

It was hoped that if President Wilson received the powers he demanded the cost of living would be reduced about twenty per cent in a comparatively short time. President Wilson decided to exercise the powers conferred upon him by the Embargo Clause in the Espionage Act, and to make it impossible for neutral countries or the allies of America to export from this country wheat or other essential grain without obtaining a license, and the approval of an exports council composed of Mr. Hoover, and representatives of the Departments of State, War, Navy and Commerce. He also determined, without waiting for complete legislation, to interest as far as possible the great voluntary forces of the country in the work of saving food. In a letter addressed to Mr. Hoover on June 12th he said as follows:

> MY DEAR MR. HOOVER: It seems to me that the inauguration of that portion of the plan for food administration which contemplates a national mobilization of the great voluntary forces of the country which are ready to work toward saving food and eliminating waste admits of no further delay. The approaching harvesting, the immediate necessity for wise use and the saving not only in food, but in all other expenditures, the many undirected and overlapping efforts being made toward this end, all press for national direction and inspiration.
>
> While it would in many ways be desirable to wait complete legislation establishing the food administration, it appears to me that so far as voluntary effort can be assembled we should not wait any longer, and, therefore, I will be very glad if you would proceed in these directions at once.
>
> The women of the nation are already earnestly seeking to do their part in this our greatest struggle for the maintenance of our national ideals, and in no direction can they so greatly assist as by enlisting in the service of the food administration, and cheerfully accepting its direction and advice. By so doing they will increase the surplus of food available for our own army and for export to the Allies.
>
> To provide adequate support for the coming year it is of absolutely vital importance to the conduct of the war, and without a very conscientious elimination of waste and very strict economy in our food consumption we cannot hope to fulfill this primary duty.
>
> I trust, therefore, that the women of the country will not only respond to your appeal and accept the pledge to the Food Administration which you are proposing, but that all men also, who are engaged in the personal distribution of foods will co-operate with the same earnestness and in the same spirit.
>
> I give you full authority to undertake any steps necessary for the proper organization and stimulation of their efforts.

The government's food control program was outlined by President Wilson as follows: "The objects sought to be served by the legislation asked for are: Full inquiry into the existing available stocks of foodstuffs, and into the costs and practices of the various food producing and distributing trades; the prevention of all unwarranted hoarding of every kind, and of the control of foodstuffs by persons who are not in any legitimate sense producers, dealers or traders; the requisitioning when necessary for the public use of food supplies, and of the equipment necessary for handling them properly; the licensing of wholesome and legitimate mixtures and milling percentages, and the prohibition of the unnecessary or wasteful use of food.

"Authority is asked also to establish prices, but not in order to limit the profits of the farmers but only to guarantee to them when necessary a minimum price which will insure them a profit where they are asked to attempt new crops, and to secure the consumer against extortion by breaking up corners, and attempts at speculation when they occur by fixing temporarily a reasonable price at which middlemen must sell."

The Senate was slow in passing the bill. It objected to giving one man dictatorial powers, and was considering the creation of a Congressional Board to supervise the conduct of the war, but at last the administration bill was passed, and Mr. Hoover formally appointed Food Administrator.

THE FOOD ADMINISTRATION

He immediately issued a full statement of his plans, in which he said: "The hopes of the Food Administration are threefold. First, to so guide the trade in the fundamental food commodities as to eliminate vicious speculation, extortion and wasteful practices and to stabilize prices in the essential staples; second, to guard our exports so that against the world's shortage we retain sufficient supplies for our own people, and to co-operate with the Allies to prevent inflation of prices; and third, that we stimulate in every manner within our power the saving of our food in order that we may increase exports to our Allies to a point which will enable them to properly provision their armies, and to feed their peoples during the coming winter.

"The Food Administration is called upon to stabilize and not to disturb conditions and to defend honest enterprise against illegitimate competition. If there are men or organizations scheming to increase the trials of this country, we shall not hesitate to apply to the full the drastic, coercive powers that Congress has conferred upon us in this instrument.

"The deep obligation is upon us to feed the armies and the peoples associated with us in this struggle. The diversion of 40,000,000 of their men to war or war work; the additional millions of women drafted to the places of their husbands and brothers; the toll of the submarine, have all conspired to so reduce production that their harvest will fall 500,000,000 bushels of grain below their normal production. Therefore, whereas we exported before the war but 80,000,000 bushels of wheat per annum, this year by one means or another, we must find for them 225,000,000 bushels, and this in the face of a short crop.

WAR BREAD

"Our best will but partly meet their needs, for even then they must reduce their bread consumption twenty-five per cent, and it will be war bread they must eat—war bread, of which a large portion consists of other cereals. Already the greater call for meat and animal products, due to the stress of war on the millions of men on the fighting line, and the enhanced physical labor of populations ordinarily subsisting on lighter diets, coupled with the inadequate world supply, have compelled our allies to kill upward of 33,000,000 head of their stock animals. This is burning the candle at both ends for they are thus stifling their annual production. Therefore, not only must we increase their supplies of meat and dairy products, but must prepare, as the war goes on, to meet an even greater demand for these necessary commodities.

"France and Italy formerly produced their own sugar, while England and Ireland imported largely from Germany. Owing to the inability of the first named to produce more than one-third of their needs, and the necessity for the others to import from other markets, they all must come to the West Indies for very large supplies, and therefore, deplete our own resources. Because of the shortage of shipping, only the most concentrated of foods, wheat, grain, beef, pork and dairy products and sugar can be sent across the seas. Fortunately, we have for our own use a superabundance of foodstuffs of other kinds,—the perishables, fish, corn and other cereals—and surely our first manifest duty is to substitute these for those other products which are of greater use to our fellow fighters.

"Our second duty is to eliminate wastes to the last degree. Seventy per cent of our people are well known to be as thrifty and careful as any in the world, and they consume but little or no more than is necessary to maintain their physical strength. It is not too much to ask the other thirty per cent, by simpler living to reduce their consumption.

"The substitutions we ask impose no hardships. There is no royal road to food conservation. It can be accomplished only through sincere and earnest daily co-operation in the twenty million kitchens and at the twenty million dinner tables of the United States. If we can reduce our consumption of wheat flour by one pound, our meat by seven ounces, our fat by seven ounces, our sugar by seven ounces per person per week those quantities multiplied by a hundred million will immeasurably aid and encourage our allies, help our own growing armies and so effectively serve the great and noble cause of humanity in which our nation has embarked."

PRICE FIXING

The Food Administration at once began its work with great vigor. Mr. Hoover, anticipating his appointment, had been getting ready. He had begun his organization. He had found them headquarters, he had made his plans, and the day after the bill was signed things began to happen officially. A fifty million dollar federal wheat corporation with all its stock owned by the United States Government was established to buy and sell wheat at the principal terminals. Its chairman was Mr. Hoover, and its president Julius Barnes, a Duluth exporter, who had been serving as a voluntary aid in the Food Administration.

A price-fixing commission headed by Dr. H. A. Garfield was appointed to fix the price for the year's wheat yield. Mr. Hoover declared that gambling on the wheat exchanges must end, even if the government had to purchase the entire wheat supply of the nation, and that he had decided to take over control of all grain elevators and mills with a daily milling capacity of one hundred barrels of flour and place them under a system of licenses which would make hoarding impossible.

He gave out the following announcement: "With a view to determining a fair price, the President has approved the appointment of a committee to be selected from representatives of the producing and consuming elements in the community. The committee will be assembled under the chairmanship of President Garfield, of Williams College, and it will be the duty of this committee to determine a fair price for the 1917 harvest. Upon the determination of this fair basis, it is the intention of the Food Administration to use every authority given under the bill, and the control of exports to effect the universality of this fair basis throughout the whole of the 1917 harvest year, without change or fluctuation.

"It should thus be clear that it will not be to the advantage of any producer to hold back his grain in anticipation of further advance, for he will do so only at his own cost of storage and interest, and if it is necessary for the government to buy the entire wheat harvest in order to maintain this fair price in protection of the producer, we intend to do so.

"Furthermore, the holding of wheat or flour contracts by persons not engaged in the trade, and even when in trade in larger quantities than is necessary for the ordinary course of their business, is unlawful under the Food Act, and such cases will be prosecuted with vigor. We would advise such holders to liquidate their contracts at once."

The promulgation of Mr. Hoover's plans led to an immediate decline in the prices of grain, vegetables and poultry. The price-fixing commission fixed the price of the 1917 wheat crop at $2.20 a bushel, which was twenty cents higher than the price named in the Food Control Act for the 1918 crop. The government then under the newly organized United States Grain Corporation went into the market on September 5th and took possession of the wheat in elevators and terminals buying at the price fixed by the price-fixing commission.

From that day on every bushel of wheat in the country passed through the Grain Corporation from the elevators and terminals to the mills. It was sold at an advance of one per cent to cover the cost of handling, the government making no profit. To prevent hoarding the millers were allowed to keep at hand only a thirty-days' stock.

Another provision of the Food Control Act went into effect on September 8th. It prevented the making or importation of distilled liquors, with the object of saving the millions of bushels of grain used annually in the manufacture of whisky. This forced certain small distilleries to close down, but as 230,000,000 gallons had accumulated in the bonded warehouses, liquor stores and saloons, the whisky drinker was not immediately affected. On September 15th the sugar industry was taken over by the government, and agreements entered into by the Food Administrator and the beet and cane sugar manufacturers. Mr. Hoover fixed the price of beet sugar at $7.25 a hundred pounds.

SUGAR SHORTAGE

The first article in which the American people experienced a shortage was sugar. Before the war the Allies had been consuming annually about three million tons and producing less than half of it, England in particular producing no sugar at all. She was compelled to import what was necessary from foreign sources, seventy per cent being obtained from the European countries and the rest mainly from North and South America. As the result of the war, less than half of the usual crop in Europe was produced each year, which meant that the demand of the Allies from the United States and Cuba was far greater than their supply. The French people ordinarily produce enough sugar for their own needs, but they were forced to ask for aid.

Mr. Hoover stated: "We have received a request from the French Government that we allow them to export from the United States one hundred thousand tons of sugar during the next month and probably more at a later period. Our own situation is that we have just sufficient sugar to maintain our normal consumption until the 1st of January when the new West Indian crop becomes available. Our consumption is at the rate of ninety pounds per person per year, a little under four ounces per day per person. The French people are on a ration of sugar equal to only twenty-one pounds per annum per person, or at the rate of less than one ounce per day, a little more than the weight of a silver dollar each day. The English and Italian rations are also not over one ounce per day.

"The French people will be entirely without sugar for over two months if we refuse to part with enough from our stocks to keep them supplied with even this small allowance, as it is not available from any other quarter. Sugar, even to a greater amount than the French ration, is a human necessity. If our people will reduce by one-third their purchases and consumption of candy and of sugar for other uses than preserving fruit, which we do not wish to interfere with, we can save the French situation."

FOOD LICENSES

On October 10th President Wilson issued a proclamation putting under the control of the Food Administration practically all of the essential foodstuffs, and providing that a license, issued under regulations governing the conduct of the business of the licensee, must be secured on or before November 1st by dealers in food. All direct trading by handlers of flour with European countries was prohibited and the business taken over by the Food Administration. This was not only to make the best use of the American flour, but also to regulate the quantities sent to neutral countries.

The baking industry was put under license November 12th. All bakeries using more than ten barrels of flour a month were compelled to use standard weights and the formula for war bread. This applied not only to bakers but to hotels, restaurants and clubs, and heads of households were requested to watch carefully the formulas and co-operate voluntarily.

On October 19th Mr. Hoover made another appeal for a reduced use of sugar, and the publicity led to a sugar panic and a rush on retail grocery stores in many parts of the country. Unscrupulous dealers took the opportunity to raise the prices, although the wholesale price did not change. Mr. Hoover relieved the situation by obtaining two hundred million pounds of raw sugar from Louisiana.

A patriotic campaign was instituted throughout the country to aid the Food Administration in food conservation. Public addresses were made on the subject, appeals to the people published in the newspapers and flashed upon the screen in the moving-picture theatres. The women of the country took an active part in this campaign and voluntary pledges of support were made over all the land. By November 6th, the total number of these pledges was 7,406,544, representing about one family of every three in the United States. Almost all of the hotels and restaurants supported the movement.

MEATLESS DAYS

Meatless Tuesdays and Wheatless Wednesdays were established and almost universally accepted by public eating-houses and in homes, without complaint. The general appeal made to the patriotism of the American people was strikingly successful. The people were told that "Food Will Win the War," and they felt that they were helping our armies. Indeed, the ultimate downfall of the Central Powers was in large part the result of the scarcity of food. Wars are no longer fought by armies. The people at home can do their bit.

The Embargo Policy of the United States adopted on July 15th turned out also to be a powerful weapon. This was carried out by the War Trade Board, of which the Honorable Vance McCormick was chairman. Its especial object was to prevent supplies from being sent from America to the Central Powers. When the policy went into effect Germany was obtaining from the neutral countries of northern Europe fats enough for full rations for 2,500,000 men. This was only made possible through the importation by those countries of foodstuffs and flour from the United States. This was promptly cut off, and from that time on the supply of fats obtained by Germany from such sources was reduced almost to nothing. Moreover, it enabled the United States and

Great Britain to make agreements with neutral countries by which those countries were to be supplied with needed food and fuel provided their ships lying idle were leased to the allied powers.

Later on trade agreements were made by which neutral countries gave satisfactory assurances against the exportation to the Central Powers of imported foodstuffs and other articles. It was the general policy of the United States to supply neutral peoples with absolutely necessary food and other commodities, without allowing them to assist the Central Powers. This was all done by a system of licenses, and trading with foreigners was regulated by an Enemy Trading List, composed of firms with which it was unlawful to trade. While thus enforcing the Embargo Policy against the Central Powers the United States was supplying the Allies with foodstuffs in increasing quantities.

A statement by Mr. Hoover on July 11, 1918, summarizes the effort of the American people in support of allied food supplies. During the fiscal year the total value of the food shipments purchased through the Food Administration amounted to $1,400,000,000. The shipments of meats and fats to allied destinations were $3,011,100,000 , an increase of $844,600,000 over the preceding year. Nearly all of this increase took place during the last half of the fiscal year after the Food Administration had got fairly to work. In cereals and cereal products the American shipments to the Allies were 348,803,000 bushels, an increase of 80,900,000 bushels. Besides these cereals the shipments of wheat from the harvest of 1917 amounted to 141,000,000 bushels, in addition to which 10,000,000 bushels were shipped to neutrals.

It should be noted that when the Food Administration was created in August, 1917, the 1917 crop had already been planted and partly harvested. No effort, therefore, of the Food Administration could make it larger. In fact, according to Mr. Hoover not only was there a very large failure in wheat, but also the corn failed to mature properly. The total nutritional production of the country for the fiscal year 1917–18 was between seven and nine per cent below the average of the three previous years. The wheat crop just about equaled the normal consumption of the United States. The shipments to allied destinations, therefore, represent approximately savings from our own wheat bread.

It was a year of universal shortage in the northern hemisphere, yet both the Allies and United States came in sight of a new harvest with health and strength fully maintained. Said Mr. Hoover: "Our contributions to this end could not have been accomplished without effort and sacrifice, and it is a matter for further satisfaction that it has been accomplished voluntarily and individually. It is difficult to distinguish between various sections of our people—the homes, public eating places, food trades, urban or agricultural population—in assessing credit for these great results. But no one will deny the dominant part of the American women."

But there were other phases of the food problem beside that of food conservation. It was necessary to stimulate production. Long before the war the nation possessed officially organized agencies which had been for many years studying agricultural problems. Among these were the Federal Department of Agriculture, the State Departments of Agriculture and the State Agricultural Colleges. There were also many important farmers' organizations.

Early in April, 1917, the Secretary of Agriculture called agricultural conferences which considered the question of food supply, and elaborate plans were made to stimulate food production. Women were especially appealed to not only to prevent waste, but to conserve food by home canning and drying, and millions of bulletins were distributed, dealing with questions of this character.

HOME GARDENS

Special efforts were made to stimulate the planting of home gardens, and efforts were made to supply the labor where needed for the farms of the country. Many volunteer organizations co-operated in this effort, including the Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls and Boys' Working Reserve. The National War Garden Commission was organized in March, some weeks before the United States entered the war, by Mr. Charles Lathrop Pack. The commission included such names as Luther Burbank of California, Dr. Charles W. Elliott, John Hays Hammond, John Grier Hibben and other men of equal note. The aim of this commission was to arouse the patriots of America to the importance of putting all idle hands to work, and to teach them how to do it.

Near every city were vacant lots which were potential sources of food supply. The object of the commission was to turn these vacant lots into food gardens. An extensive propaganda was instituted, with elaborate posters and wide distribution of carefully prepared pamphlets.

Newspapers were furnished with articles and feature stories dealing with various phases of war gardens, and representatives of the commission visited cities and towns stirring up local Chambers of Commerce and other similar organizations. As a result of this propaganda the war gardens sprang up as though by magic. Gardening came to be the thing.

Many of the posters were by artists of national reputation and popularized slogans which helped to stimulate enthusiasm. One of these was the famous "Can the Kaiser" poster, which appropriately was the work of a Belgian, J. Paul Verries, a soldier artist who had been wounded in one of the early battles of the war, and was incapacitated for further military service. Another poster was by James Montgomery Flagg with the slogans "Sow Seeds of Victory" and "Every Garden a Munition Plant."

This movement spread with great rapidity, not only in America but in foreign countries. In the first season it resulted in the planting of approximately 3,500,000 home food producing lots. These increased in 1918 to 5,285,000 war gardens. The food value of the 1917 food products was estimated at something like $350,000,000. In 1918 the value was $525,000,000. It was estimated that in 1917 there were put up and stored on the pantry shelves more than 500,000,000 quarts of canned vegetables and fruits. And this number increased in 1918 to 1,450,000,000 cans. The increased production and the bountiful harvest of 1918 made the problem for the winter of 1918–19 a somewhat simpler one.

The ending of the war took away much of the strain, yet it was just as necessary to supply food for the allied peoples during the period of the armistice as during war time.

On February 24, 1919, the United States Congress appropriated one hundred millions of dollars for the relief of the ever-increasing famine in Europe, and the American Relief Administration was created by President Wilson with Mr. Hoover as director-general. Supplies and foodstuffs were sent to the people of Belgium and northern France. This food was carried in army and navy transports. It was estimated that the number of destitute people in Belgium was 2,200,000. These supplies were sent to Antwerp and to Rotterdam, from which points the feeding of northern Europe was carried on. From Rotterdam supplies were sent also to Finland in Finnish boats carried by the Finns themselves. American steamers with cargoes of grain were sent to Italy, and great quantities of supplies from United States were delivered to Switzerland, Czecho-Slovakia, Poland, the Balkan States, Serbia, Montenegro and the near East. Great Britain was assisting us in this work, especially in Assyria, Mesopotamia and other eastern countries controlled by their armies.

The shipment of food to Germany was in exchange for the surrender of the German merchant marine. The German ships were used in transporting home American and Australian soldiers, on their return voyage carrying food to Germany. The total shipping capacity thus made available was estimated at 350,000 tons, and Germany was allowed to pay for these supplies out of her credits in neutral countries. The desperate food conditions, therefore, did not end with the armistice. In fact, in some respects the situation has been more serious than ever, owing to a natural lessening of patriotic endeavors to conserve after the war was over. The result is seen in the steadily increasing prices, with their natural sequence of hardship, starvation and public disturbance.

If it was true that "Food Will Win the War" it may also be just as true that food may save society. The Bolshevist movement and the general strikes are very largely brought about because of the high price of food. People who are starving are ready to try anything that promises relief.

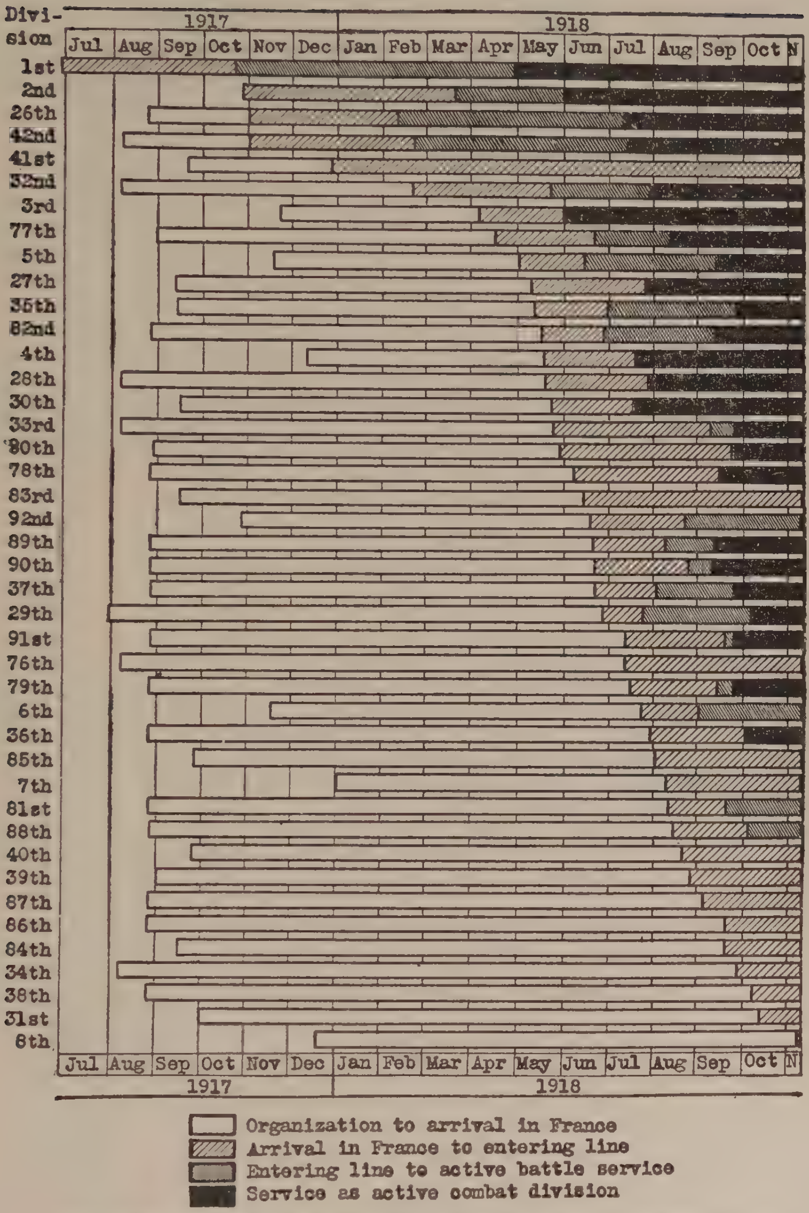
CHAPTER XXV

SUPPLIES FOR OVERSEAS

THE raising of a great American Army and the training of it was a huge problem, but one equally difficult soon presented itself. This was the transportation of that army, its munitions and other supplies, overseas. The problem manifested itself with increasing insistence during the latter part of 1917 and January, 1918. So slow was the movement of men and material that it was realized the transportation of both must be speeded up if disaster to the Allies was to be prevented when Germany's great drive would be launched in the spring of 1918. President Wilson and Secretary of War Baker decided that a great executive was needed to organize and speed up the transportation of America's fighting forces and their equipment.

In this emergency they turned to General Peyton Conway March. The announcement was made on February 6, 1918, that General March, then a major-general, chief of the staff on artillery with the American forces in France, had been appointed as Chief-of-Staff of the United States Army with headquarters in Washington. His success in organizing the artillery service in France had made him noted by both the French and British. At the time of his appointment as chief-of-staff, he was fifty-three years old and the youngest of the major-generals who had gone to France. He had seen service in the artillery branch of the army continuously since his graduation from West Point with the exception of duty as major and later as lieutenant-colonel of volunteer infantry in 1899 and 1901 in the Philippines. He commanded the Astor Battery in the Spanish-American War and during the Russo-Japanese War he was military observer for the United States Army with the Japanese Army.

Under his vigorous direction the transportation of fighting Americans overseas increased until it averaged more than



TIME FROM ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN DIVISIONS TO ENTERING LINE

10,000 men a day. During the last six months of American participation in the war, more than 1,500,000 men were transported across the Atlantic.

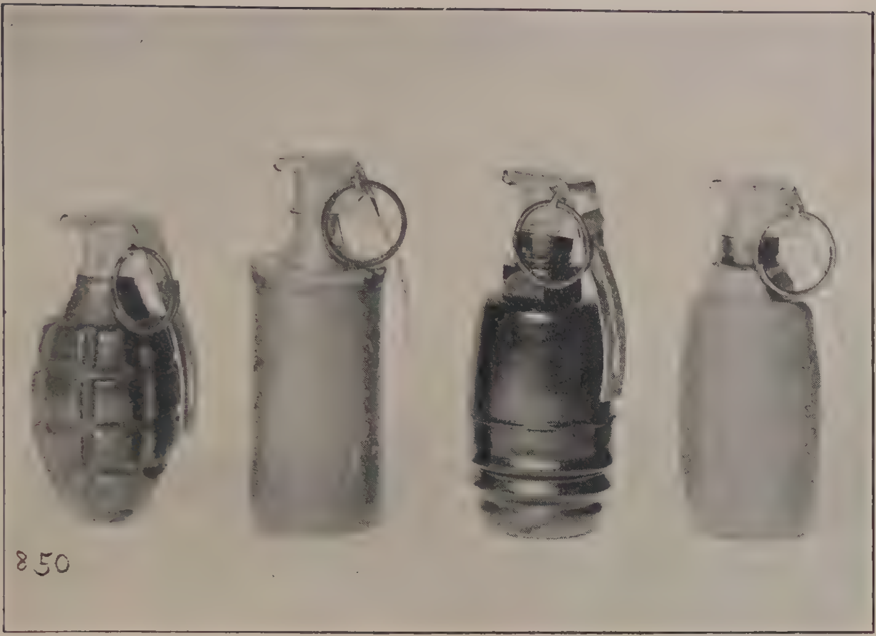
This amazing record made possible the check and defeat of the Germans at Château-Thierry. It won for the Allies the decisive second battle of the Marne; it dealt to Germany the death stroke of the Argonne. To the genius of General Peyton Conway March, America and the victorious Allies are indebted for the mighty tide of victorious khaki that ended German aggression forever in the fall of 1918.

During the nineteen months of our participation in the war, more than two million American soldiers were carried to France. These men had to be moved, first, to the various training camps, then to ports of departure, then across the ocean to England and France, from there to training camps, and lastly to the front. Supplies for these men had to be carried, including immense quantities of munitions.

Five days after the declaration of war against Germany, the presidents of the principal American railroads met at the national capitol and agreed that during the war they would subordinate every other interest to help win the war, that they would eliminate all competitive rivalry, and merge their interests under the direction of the American Railway Associations' Special Committee on National Defense.

To every army department headquarters was assigned an expert in railway operations, with a corps of assistants placed at railway centers to take charge of the movement by rail of troops, munitions and supplies as desired by the military authorities. The movement of the National Guard organizations was conducted without an accident to a single man, without delay at the point of origin, on the route, or at destination, without a hitch in the arrangements as originally planned. Throughout the war all of the movements of troops were thus satisfactorily conducted.

The movement of supplies, however, was not carried on with so great success. The railroads in America were crowded by the natural freight movements in America, which were largely increased by the movement of supplies purchased from this country by the allied powers. More than three



U. S. Official Photograph.

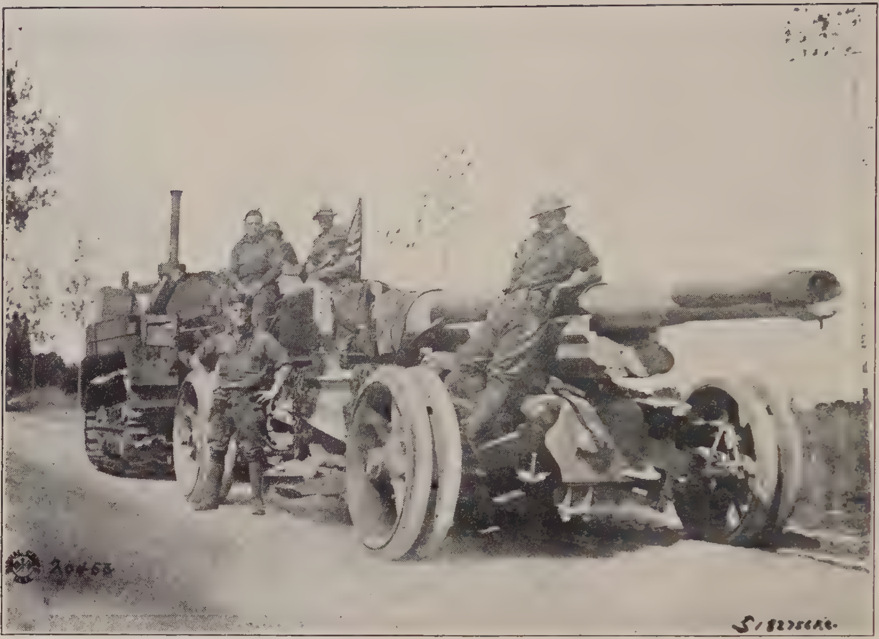
TYPES OF HAND GRENADES

Left to right: 1. Defensive; 2. Offensive; 3. Gas; 4. Phosphorus. The soldier grasps the grenade so as to hold the lever down, pulls out the pin to which the ring is attached and throws, the lever flying off in the air and the grenade exploding in a fixed number of seconds.

U. S. Official Photograph.

FIRING RIFLE GRENADES

The explosion of the rifle cartridge whisks the little cylinders off in a long arc to burst upon the enemy's lines.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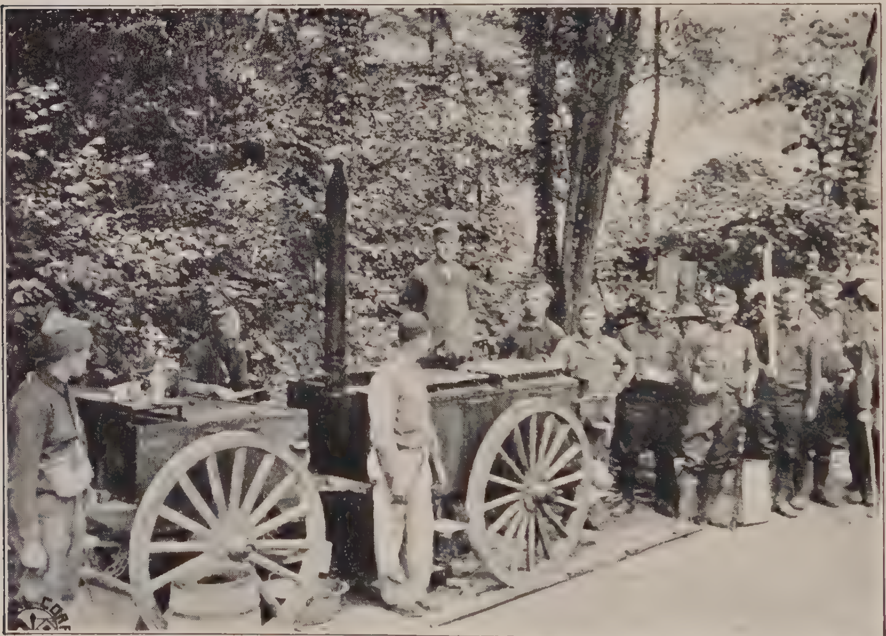
MODERN FIELD ARTILLERY

A powerful 155 millimeter gun with its caterpillar tractor following the retreating Germans.


U. S. Official Photograph.

THE "CHOW" WAGONS

Rolling Field Kitchen of Company H, 38th Infantry, 3d Division, showing cooks preparing dinner near the front line trenches.

billion dollars had been expended for such purposes, and as these supplies had to be sent to a few Atlantic ports for shipment to Europe, a great deal of congestion had arisen at those points. The declaration of war by the United States made it necessary also to move immense masses of supplies for the American troops. The President of the United States finally determined to have the government take complete control of the roads.

He derived his power from an Act of Congress dated August 29, 1916, which reads as follows: "The President in time of war is empowered, through the Secretary of War, to take possession and assume control of any system or systems of transportation, or any part thereof, and to utilize the same to the exclusion as far as may be necessary of all other traffic thereon, for the transfer or transportation of troops, war material and equipment, or for such other purposes connected with the emergency as may be needful or desirable."

The President, therefore, issued a proclamation which went into effect on December 28, 1917, assuming control of "each and every system of transportation and the appurtenances thereof, located wholly or in part within the boundaries of the continent of the United States, and consisting of railroads, and owned or controlled systems of coastwise and inland transportation, engaged in general transportation, whether operated by steam or electric power, including also terminals, terminal companies and terminal associations, sleeping and parlor cars, private cars and private car lines, elevators, warehouses, telegraph and telephone lines, and all other equipment and appurtenances commonly used upon or operated as a part of such rail or combined rail and motor systems of transportation." He declared, "that the possession, control, operation and utilization of such transportation systems shall be exercised by and through William G. McAdoo, who is hereby appointed and designated director-general of railroads. Said director may perform the duties imposed upon him so long and to such extent as he shall determine through the boards of directors, receivers, officers and employees of said system of transportation."

In a statement issued by President Wilson he said:

"The public interest must be first served, and in addition the financial interests of the government and the financial interests of the railways must be brought under a common direction. The financial operations of the railway need not, then, interfere with the borrowings of the government, and they themselves can be conducted at a great advantage. Investors in railway securities may rest assured that their rights and interests will be as scrupulously looked after by the government as they could be by the directors of the several railway systems. Immediately upon the reassembling of Congress, I shall recommend that these different guarantees be given."

The result of President Wilson's proclamation was a great rise in the market value of railway stocks. The business men of America generally recognized his action as proper under existing circumstances, and Congress adopted the Railway Control Bill in accordance with his recommendation, with the proviso "that the government control of the railroads shall not continue more than twenty-one months after the war." The holders of railroad stocks and bonds were guaranteed a net annual income equal to the average net income for the three years ending June 30, 1917. The railroad system in the United States consisted at that time of 260,000 miles of railroad owned by 441 distinct corporations, with about 650,000 shareholders, and it employed 1,600,000 men. It represented a property investment of $17,500,000,000. The outstanding capital in round numbers was $16,000,000,000, some $9,000,000,000 of which was represented by a funded debt. The rolling stock comprised 61,000 locomotives, 2,250,000 freight cars, 52,000 passenger cars and 95,000 service cars. All this came under the direction of William G. McAdoo as director-general.

Mr. McAdoo appointed an advisory board to assist him composed of expert railway men, and soon found that under the direction of this new commission, this gigantic railway system was able to work without serious hitch. The board consisted of John Skelton Williams, controller of the currency; Hale Holden, president of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad; Henry Walters, chairman of the Board of Directors of the Atlantic Coast Line; Edward Chambers, vice-president of the Sante Fé Railroad and head of the Transportation Division of the United States Food Administration, and Walter D. Hines, chairman of the Executive Committee of the Sante Fé. Mr. Williams was assigned to deal with the financial problem, Mr. Holden undertook the direction of the work of committees and sub-committees, Mr. Hines became assistant to the director-general. Mr. McAdoo immediately undertook to end the congestion of traffic in New York City and Chicago. All lines entering these cities were given equal rights in trackage and water terminal facilities. All terminals, ports, locomotives, rolling stock, and other transportation facilities were pooled. Coal was given the right of way, which brought about great relief in those sections of the country which in the winter of 1917–18 had been suffering from fuel shortage. More than two hundred and fifty passenger trains were dropped from the schedule of eastern roads, permitting a great increase in freight traffic. Empty box cars were sent to the wheat producing centers to carry wheat to the Atlantic seacoast for shipment to England and France.

On July 16, 1918, President Wilson signed the bill authorizing the President to take control of all telegraph, telephone, cable and radio lines, and later assumed such control.

The transportation of the American Army across the ocean was the greatest military feat of its kind ever accomplished in history. The railroads in existence were not sufficient, and it was necessary to build new roads, new docks, new terminals, both in America and in France. Hundreds of American ships were built with miraculous speed, and even then it was necessary for England to come to the rescue. But the army was sent across, its every want was supplied, even its leisure hours were looked after, and the whole movement was conducted with clock-like precision.

To supplement the railroads, it was found advisable to make use of an enormous number of motor trucks. Before the war the motor truck had been used during the punitive expedition to Mexico in pursuit of Francisco Villa. Tests had been made upon various trucks by army experts as early as 1904. In 1914 the Society of Automobile Engineers, perceiving the importance of motor transportation in the war in Europe, had offered its services to the War Department for the purpose of making a complete survey of the automobile, in the hope that it might be found that that industry might be able to provide the necessary motor equipment for the army in case of war.

In 1916 the War Department accepted this offer and a committee of the engineers from five companies manufacturing trucks, from five companies assembling trucks, and an engineer from a truck company not making the types of trucks under consideration, was appointed to co-operate with the army officers in providing suitable auto trucks. This committee drew up specifications for one-and-a-half and three-ton trucks for army use. These trucks were at once ordered in quantities and used by our forces along the Mexican border. The use of motor trucks was so successful that after numerous conferences between representatives of the War Department and the automobile industry, standard specifications for two classes of auto trucks were established.

Early in 1917 an appropriation of $175,000 was made for the purpose of designing and drawing up specifications of a complete new vehicle which would become a standardized truck for our military forces. On October 10th the new type of truck was designed and two sample trucks completed and formally presented to the War Department and pronounced wholly successful. Orders for ten thousand of these trucks were at once placed, and in April eight thousand more were authorized, and in September twenty-five thousand more, which, however, were never delivered on account of the signing of the armistice.

Other branches of the army were buying commercial trucks of different makes for their special uses; the Ordnance Department had ordered thirty thousand four-wheel drive trucks; the Signal Corps specialized in light and heavy trucks for aviation service assembled from known and tried units; the Engineering Corps had adopted a five-and-a-half-ton truck, and the Medical Corps had selected two models for ambulances, causing thus a decided lack of standardization in the army motor trucks. The government, therefore, created a Standardization Board, composed of representatives of each of the various corps which standardized for use a number of well-known types.

While these vehicles were being tested, the motor transport service was being formed, and the need for trucks increased so rapidly that it was impossible to purchase the standardized trucks in sufficient quantities to meet the demand. It was, therefore, determined to procure certain other types until the standardized truck could be produced in sufficient numbers.

In April, 1917, the army possessed 3,039 trucks, 437 automobiles, 670 motor cycles and twelve tractors. One and a half years later it owned 85,000 trucks, and had planned to have 185,000 trucks, together with 30,000 ambulances, 40,000 passenger cars, 70,000 motor cycles and 70,000 bicycles, a grand total of 400,000 vehicles, costing over $700,000,000.

The need of the army for motor cycles, side cars and bicycles was so great that practically the entire output of these vehicles was taken by the government. Horse and hand-drawn vehicles were also used by the army in great numbers, being used as ambulances, escort wagons, combat wagons, spring wagons, water carts, ration carts and medical carts; 181,177 of such vehicles being ordered up to the time of the armistice.

As the American Army arrived in France, it was soon found necessary to provide thousands of miles of railway track, not only to connect the fighters with the various fields of operation, but with the great bases of supply, and it was necessary to ship across the seas, thousands of every kind of freight car, to build hundreds of locomotives and transport them to Europe, to provide fabricated track that could be laid under heavy shell fire, and hospital trains to care for our wounded.

On July 10, 1917, General Pershing cabled for three hundred locomotives and two hundred kilometers of track. Arrangements were made with the American Locomotive Works and with the Baldwin Locomotive Works to build each 150 locomotives of the consolidation type. The consolidation locomotive weighs 166,400 pounds. It has one pair of engine truck wheels and four pairs of drivers. The engine is as large as it is possible to use within the French tunnels. It is not, however, so large as the freight engines used in America. The order placed with the Baldwin concern was carried out with such speed that only twenty working days elapsed before the first engine was completed and ready for shipment. This is a new record for locomotive construction. All the other locomotives were delivered promptly, those built at the American Locomotive Works costing $51,000 each, and those of the Baldwin Works, $46,000 each. All subsequent orders for engines went to the Baldwin people, and from time to time reductions were made in the price, so that the last engines of the 3,340 ordered from this concern cost $37,000 each.

There were shipped in all to the American Expeditionary Force 1,303 locomotives. Others were turned over to the American railways to help out the railroad congestion in this country. The director-general of military railways was appointed custodian of the undelivered locomotives ordered by the Russian Government from the Baldwin and American works. These engines were converted to meet American requirements, and purchased by the American Government. Orders for 90,103 freight cars were also placed with American contractors, contracts for 40,915 of these cars were cancelled at the time of the armistice. Eighteen thousand three hundred and thirteen of these cars had been shipped overseas. The American locomotives and cars were shipped across the Atlantic on their own wheels, packed in baled hay instead of being disassembled at the sea ports and carried over in parts. The number of cars actually shipped overseas if made into one solid train would be 140 miles long. Arrangements had been made for speeding up the production of locomotive and freight cars before the time of the armistice, and the Baldwin Locomotive Works was producing and shipping engines at the rate of three hundred a month.

Rails were also purchased in great abundance. The first purchase amounting to 102,000 tons was made on the basis of thirty-eight dollars a ton for Bessemer steel and forty dollars a ton for open-hearth steel, a much cheaper rate than the

Allies were paying. Subsequent orders were on a basis of fifty-five dollars for Bessemer, and fifty-seven dollars a ton for open-hearth, which then became the prices for all purchasers, the government, the Allies and the public. Over nine hundred miles of railway track was laid in France from the material shipped from this country. In purchasing freight cars it was decided to use the American type of car, which it was found could be used on the French railroads. All cars shipped from the United States were the American eight-wheel type with a thirty-ton capacity. If the lighter French cars originally asked for had been built and shipped it would have cost thirty-two million dollars.

Ambulance trains were also desired by General Pershing. To build these ambulance trains with their complicated design and specialized equipment in this country would have caused a great deal of delay and very heavy expense. Ambulance trains built by the London and Northwestern Railway had been turned out with great speed, and had proved entirely satisfactory; it was, therefore, determined to place the orders for our ambulance trains with this company. At the end of the war, nineteen such trains had been completed, with a total of 304 cars.

It was also found necessary to construct narrow-gauge railroads in the combat areas behind the front-line trenches. Large quantities of sixty-centimeter locomotives, cars, and track were needed for such railroads. Photographs and designs were brought over from France, and certain modifications were made to produce greater efficiency. Orders for the first lot were placed with the Baldwin Locomotive Works. Delivery of steam locomotives, gas locomotives and freight cars for these narrow-gauge railways began early in the fall of 1917.

Up until the time the armistice was signed 427 locomotives, 6,134 cars were completed, and almost all of them had been shipped overseas. Among those used by the Expeditionary Force were 600 box cars, 166 tank cars, 500 flat cars, 1,555 eight-wheel gondola cars, 330 dump cars, 100 artillery truck cars, 970 motor cars, 180 inspection cars, 300 hand cars and 990 push cars.

For the narrow-gauge railway a special type of fabricated track was designed, consisting of short sections of rail bolted to steel cross ties. Most of this track was in five meter lengths, though shorter sections were used. All were in multiples of one and one-fourth meters, and were accurately sawed so as to insure absolute fit of intermediate sections, when shell fire made replacement necessary. Quantities of curved track, as well as switches and turn-outs, were also built. About 605 miles of fabricated narrow-gauge steel track were purchased, and 460 miles of it shipped to France.

These narrow-gauge railroads were operated under extreme conditions of grade and curvature, and were the lines of communication between the rail heads of the broad-gauge system and the dumps and depots in the front sectors. In periods of activity and during advance they not only transported troops, munitions, materials and subsistence stores, but they were used to bring up railway artillery rapidly. When the track was destroyed by shell fire, as often happened, it was easy for the engineers to replace broken sections by new material. In order to use the motor trucks it was necessary to maintain the roads immediately behind the front in good condition, and this was done by road-building units recruited from among men accustomed in civil life to road building. These regiments frequently worked under the direct fire of the enemy.

In the construction of these roads many quarries were opened to obtain the necessary material. In quarries operated by the American engineers about forty-two thousand cubic meters of rock were obtained, while in quarries jointly operated with French forces seventy-five thousand cubic meters were obtained. The problem of transportation then, which at the beginning appeared to be extremely difficult, was most effectually solved, and, indeed, as the war went on there was a constant increase in the number of men and the amount of supplies carried across the ocean.

For many weeks during the summer of 1918 the number of men carried was more than ten thousand a day. No such troop movement as this had ever been contemplated, and no movement of any such number of persons for such a distance and such a time had ever previously occurred.

The record of the United States in bringing these same men back to the shores of the United States excels even the record made in transferring them to Europe.

The troops sailing from the United States left America from ten ports. Eleven thousand sailed from Quebec, 34,000 from Montreal, 1,000 from St. Johns, 5,000 from Halifax, 6,000 from Portland, 46,000 from Boston, 1,656,000 from New York, 35,000 from Philadelphia, 4,000 from Baltimore and 288,000 from Norfolk, a total of 2,086,000. Some of these went directly to France, and others to England. In England 45,000 went to Glasgow, 4,000 to Manchester, 844,000 to Liverpool, 11,000 to Bristol-ports, 1,000 to Falmouth, 1,000 to Plymouth, 57,000 to Southampton and 62,000 to London, a total of 1,025,000 men. In France, 13,000 went to Le Havre, 791,000 went to Brest, 198,000 to St. Lizere, 4,000 to La Pallice, 50,000 to Bordeaux and 1,000 to Marseille. Among every hundred men who went over, forty-nine went in British ships, forty-five in American ships, three in those of Italy, two in French, and one in Russian shipping under English control.

As time went on, the turn-around, by which is meant the movement of a ship across to Europe and back again, became shorter and shorter. When operations began, the turn-around for troop ships averaged about fifty-two days, and for cargo ships sixty-six days. During the summer of 1918, the turn-around for cargo ships became standardized at about seventy days, and for troop ships at about thirty-five days. During winter the time taken was much longer. The fastest ships averaged under thirty days. The Leviathan landed the equivalent of a German division in France each month. The shipment of cargo was done almost entirely by American ships.

During the whole period of active hostilities the army lost at sea only 200,000 deadweight tons of transports. Of this 142,000 tons were sunk by torpedo. No American troop transport was lost on its eastward voyage. After the armistice, the American troops at once began to return to the United States. In the movement to Europe, the British had carried about one-half of all these troops. On their return to America the British ships were not used, but our large cargo ships were converted into troop-carrying vessels, and great aid was rendered by the navy which put at the army's disposal cruisers and battleships, so that the army was brought back home even more rapidly than it was taken to France.

From the files of the United States Navy the table included in Chapter XXI has been taken showing the total number of United States troops carried overseas and the nationality of the ships which transported them.

CHAPTER XXVI

Coal and Gasolene Help to Win the War

ONE of the most important questions before the country during the progress of the war was the question of fuel. The great dependence of almost all forms of industry upon the supply of coal made it absolutely essential that the coal production in our country should be increased during the war, and that so far as possible there should be economy in its use. Before the war the Bureau of Mines had studied the problem, and issued many reports tending to solve many of the difficulties met with in the burning of coal. One of its conclusions was that in many localities the substitution of coke for anthracite coal was desirable on the score of economy and cleanliness. The Council of Defense appointed a committee on coal production during the war, and the following statement as to its work was issued in the middle of June:

"The primary purpose of the Committee on Coal Production as outlined when it was created is to increase coal production so that an adequate supply will be available. How well it has accomplished this purpose is shown by the following figures. Bituminous coal loaded at the mines in the United States for rail movement amounted in May to nearly 40,000,000 tons, or over seven million tons more than was loaded in May a year ago, and four million tons more than in April of this year. Anthracite shipments in May were over 1,300,000 tons more than for May a year ago. This mine activity probably makes a record month for rail shipments to the consumers, and figures already reported for the first half of June show that a still further increase is going on, which is expected to make June exceed May by a substantial tonnage. So far, this year, therefore, the mines have been surpassing previous records." The chief coal-producing states in the United States are Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Illinois and Ohio.

FIXING THE PRICE OF COAL

On June 27th a special committee of coal operators established in Washington a permanent Bureau in co-operation with the government. It approved a proposition that coal prices during the war should be fixed by a joint governmental commission composed of the Secretary of the Interior, the Defense Council's Coal Production Committee and the Federal Trade Commission. The price of coal had been steadily rising until it had reached $5.50 or $6.00 per ton. The Coal Operators Committee suggested a price at the mine of $3.00 a ton east of Pittsburgh, and $2.75 to the west. On July 1st Newton D. Baker, Secretary of War, refused to accept this proposition despite the approval of other members of the government, on the ground that the price was exorbitant, and for nearly two months there was no fixed price, until on August 21st when President Wilson at the suggestion of Federal Trade Commissioner W. B. Colver fixed the price at $2.50 a ton. During this period orders for many millions of tons throughout the country were cancelled, and there was no movement of coal on the railroads. It was this delay which largely helped to cause the crisis in the following winter.

The Food and Fuel Control Law passed on August 10, 1917, authorized the creation of a Fuel Administration, and on August 23d President H. A. Garfield, of Williams College, was appointed Fuel Administrator. He was given authority to fix fuel prices, to license dealers and to punish by revocation of licenses for violation of the terms of the law, or regulations made pursuant thereto. Late in September Dr. Garfield fixed the price of coal at $2.00 a ton, which was the basic price when the coal crisis came. He also promulgated a series of regulations in connection with contracts for the sale of coal and coke. As the year went on, shortage of coal developed.

It seems to be evident that plenty of coal had been mined, and that the difficulty was caused by the shortage of cars and the general condition of congestion at terminals. Federal Trade Commissioner Colver declared the railroads alone were to blame, and John P. White, labor advisor to the National Fuel Administration, declared that there were miles and miles of loaded coal cars that were not moving.

WORKLESS MONDAYS

To relieve this congestion, on January 16, 1918, Dr. Garfield issued an order "that in all portions of the United States east of the Mississippi River on January 18th, 19th, 20th, 21st, 22d and on each Monday beginning January 28th and continuing to March 25th, inclusive, no manufacturing plant should burn fuel or use power derived from fuel, except in such plants as must be operated seven days a week to avoid serious damage, plants manufacturing perishable foods, newspaper plants and certain munition factories."

It was also ordered that on the Mondays between January 21st and March 25th, inclusive, no fuel should be burned, except enough to prevent injury to property from freezing, in any business or professional offices except those of the national, state or Federal Government or public utility companies, banks, physicians and dentists, nor was the use of fuel permitted in any stores or business houses, or in theaters or other places of amusement, or in places where liquor was sold. The order also provided that priority in shipping coal should be given to the needs of private residences, hospitals, railroads, military cantonments, public utilities, shipping for bunker purposes, manufacturers of perishable foods, and federal, state and municipal governments.

This order was widely criticized and Dr. Garfield fiercely attacked by business men and by representatives of other political parties. But it was universally obeyed. It had been approved by President Wilson. Many thousands of tons of coal were saved on each of these heatless days, and the congestion of freight was gradually relieved. Several million men and women were rendered idle and in the great majority of cases they lost their wages. The people, however, generally recognized that the close-down was necessary to the execution of war plans. Monday became virtually a holiday, theaters and places of amusement being allowed to open on that day and to close down on Tuesday instead.

To aid in this endeavor to relieve the congestion of freight, Mr. McAdoo, as Director-General of Railroads, on January 23d ordered an official embargo on all new shipments of freight, except fuel, food and a few war necessities, on the

Pennsylvania lines east of Pittsburgh, the Baltimore & Ohio lines east of the Ohio River, and the Philadelphia and Reading system. The Fuel Administration, also, undertook to control the supply of coal by the institution of a zone system in the East. Mr. J. D. A. Morrow was appointed to head a new division of the Fuel Administration to take exclusive charge of all movements of coal from producer to consumer. This new division had its representatives in every community, and by careful organization it attempted to fairly distribute the coal from the mines as fast as it could be delivered.

In the spring of 1918 the Fuel Commission took a still stronger hold on the whole situation. By proclamation of the President on the 15th of March, dealers in coal and coke were required to secure a license, and immediately thereafter rules and regulations governing the distribution of coal and coke by persons subject to license were promulgated. These regulations were very complete, and the Fuel Administration prepared to enforce them with great thoroughness. They endeavored to develop a complete coal budget indicating the probable production in 1918; the coal required for direct war work, the coal required by non-war industries, and then to develop by agreement with the non-war industries a sufficient reduction to enable the probable output of coal to supply the nation's needs. The great production of coal in the year 1918, the readiness of all purchasers to stock up early, and the reduced demand caused by the ending of the war enabled the country to conclude the following winter without shortage.

THE GASOLENE SHORTAGE

During the summer of 1918, however, a shortage began to make itself felt in the supply of gasolene on account of the heavy war demand. In a report presented to Congress on September 11, 1918, Mr. Garfield declared that there had been a daily deficit in production of 6,000 barrels since April 1st, indicating a yearly deficit of approximately 2,000,000,000 barrels. The gas stocks on the Atlantic seaport for shipment abroad were at a particularly low level.

Gasolene was a seasonal product with the maximum consumption during the period from April to September inclusive, with the peak load coming in the months of June, July and August. The records show a reduction in stock of gasolene and naphtha during the month of July of approximately 1,367,000 barrels, and it was estimated that the reduction in August would be close to two million barrels, or a daily deficit of 65,000 barrels. It was on account of this unsatisfactory condition that on August 27th the Fuel Administration called upon the public in the states east of the Mississippi River to cease the uses of all classes of automobiles, with a few named exceptions, motor cycles, and motor boats on Sunday, until further notice. Motor vehicles which were excepted were tractors and motor trucks employed in actual transportation of freight, vehicles of physicians used in performance of official duties, ambulances, fire apparatus, police patrol wagons, undertakers' vehicles and the conveyances used for funerals, railway equipment using gasolene, repair outfits employed by telephone and public service companies, and motor vehicles on errands of necessity in rural communities where transportation by steam or electricity is not available.

GASLESS SUNDAYS

A statement issued by Administrator Garfield and Mark S. Requa, Director of the Oil Division, of the Fuel Administration, explains this action:

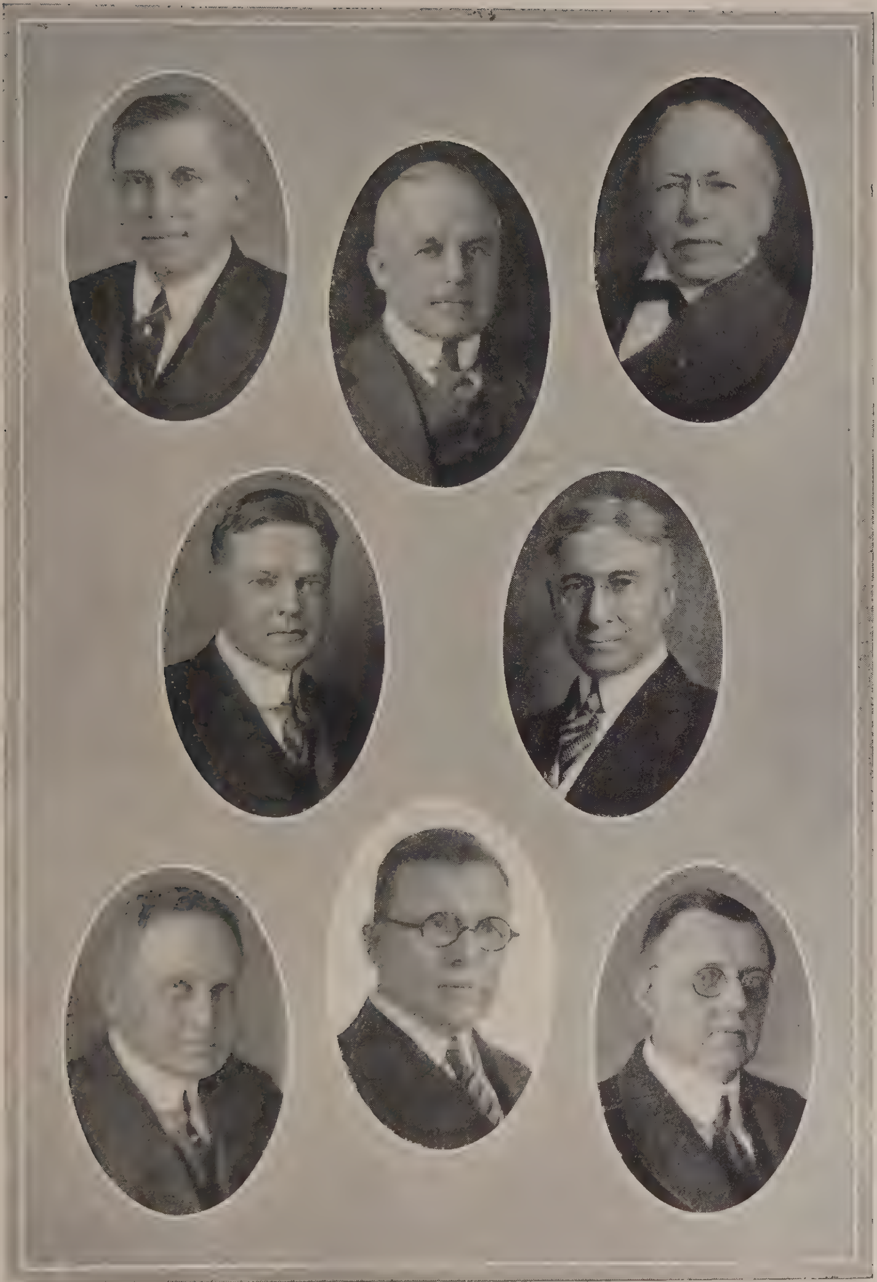
> The United States Fuel Administration considers it necessary that a limited conservation of gasolene be undertaken in the states east of the Mississippi River, in view of the increasing demand for gasolene for war purposes and the paramount obligation of meeting promptly and fully all overseas requirements. An appeal is made, therefore, to the people of the United States, east of the Mississippi River to exercise a rigid economy in the consumption of gasolene during the next few weeks, as a necessary and practical act of patriotism.
>
> War necessities are being, and will continue to be promptly and fully met, but this is the period of the year when consumption of gasolene is at its highest. And the increased domestic demands, together with the extensive military operations in France, have rendered necessary for a limited period the adoption of safeguards against possible shortage.
>
> In view of the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of differentiating between the various uses to which automobiles are applied, the United States Fuel Administration believes that the greatest measure of economy

> can be effected with the least interference with the business of the country through the discontinuance of all classes of motor vehicles, motor boats and motor cycles activities. The United States Fuel Administration, therefore, requests that in the section of the United States east of the Mississippi, there shall be a discontinuance of use of the vehicles above specified, including all such as are operated for hire, on each Sunday, hereafter, until notification that the need for such discontinuance has ceased.

The statement ended with an appeal to the patriotic men and women of America east of the Mississippi River to undertake voluntarily additional conservation in the operation of their own automobiles wherever possible. The Fuel Administration had in contemplation the extension of the prohibition of gasolene on Sunday throughout the West if it should seem later to be necessary.

Some idea of the operation of this Sunday conservation may be obtained from the consideration of the conditions in the state of New York alone. On June 1, 1918, there were 421,084 automobiles licensed in the state of New York. It would be a conservative estimate that if these cars should run on Sunday they would consume a total of 2,105,420 gallons. In the city of New York alone, 962,160 gallons would be consumed on any one Sunday. In the whole country there are about 5,500,000 automobiles. If all were operated on Sunday the gasolene consumption would reach the stupendous total of 27,500,000 gallons.

Although obedience to the request of the Fuel Administration was entirely voluntary, the people so universally responded to the appeal of the Fuel Administrator, that it was not necessary for the Oil Division to exercise the powers given it by law, and by the middle of October it was possible to cancel the order. The patriotism of the people had been appealed to and the request of the Fuel Administration was not only obeyed, but was obeyed with the greatest good will. Sunday joy riding stopped all over the states east of the Mississippi.



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LEADERS BEHIND THE LINES

Upper row, left to right: Charles M. Schwab, Director General, Emergency Fleet Corporation; Vance C. McCormick, Chairman, War Trade Board; Samuel Gompers, President, American Federation of Labor; *center:* Herbert C. Hoover, Food Administrator; Bernard M. Baruch, Chairman, War Industries Board; *lower:* Harry A. Garfield, Fuel Administrator; Frank P. Walsh, Chairman, National War Labor Board; W. P. G. Harding, Manager-Director, War Finance Corporation.

"FIX BAYONETS"

A trench scene at the moment before going over the top to charge the German positions.

CHAPTER XXVII

A Bridge of Ships

ONE of the most important questions which confronted the United States of America upon its entrance into the World War was the obvious need of a greater merchant marine. Indeed, it was generally thought that the Allies had no great need of men, and that America would be doing her share if she should be able to furnish the allied peoples with food and munitions. The submarine warfare conducted by the Germans had been destroying so much of the seagoing tonnage of the world that the problem presented enormous difficulties.

In July, 1914, the total steam seagoing merchant tonnage of the Allies was 34,924,000 gross tons. During the war the Allies lost 12,815,000 tons through enemy action. They also lost 2,193,000 tons through marine risk, and about 210,000 tons through seizures by the enemy, making a total loss of 15,218,000 tons. On the other hand, by the construction of new ships there was a gain of 11,856,000 tons, and 2,393,000 tons was captured from the enemy, a total gain of 14,249,000 tons. The net loss, therefore, was only 969,000 tons.

The United States seagoing merchant marine in August, 1914, included 624 steamers of 1,758,465 tons and 870 sailing vessels and schooner barges of 947,652 gross tons, making a grand total of 1,494 seagoing merchant vessels of 2,706,117 gross tons. On November 11, 1918, when the war ended the steam merchant marine had increased to 1,366 vessels of 4,695,263 gross tons, and the sailing vessels and schooner barges had decreased to 747 vessels of 829,917 gross tons, making a grand total of 2,113 seagoing vessels of 5,515,480 gross tons. This did not include the seized enemy vessels, which at the end of the war aggregated 88 vessels of 562,005 gross tons.

The total construction of the United States added to the merchant marine during the war 875 vessels of 2,941,845 gross tons. The purchase from foreign governments of 233 vessels of 833,854 gross tons, the movement to the ocean from the Great Lakes of 66 steamers of 139,469 gross tons and miscellaneous acquisitions amounting to 31 vessels of 39,219 gross tons, are other sources of acquisition. The loss of 114 vessels of 322,214 gross tons by enemy action, of 278 vessels of 405,400 gross tons by marine risk, of 130 vessels of 268,149 gross tons by sale to England, and of 64 vessels of 149,761 gross tons through sale to the United States Government, abandonment and other causes, accounts for the decreases.

This comparatively slight loss in the total tonnage of the Allies caused by the war and the tremendous increase of the American merchant marine was the result of an extraordinary effort put forth by all the Allies and especially by the United States Government, to prevent the German policy of submarine piracy from blockading the allied coasts, and so winning the war without it being possible for the full power of America to be brought into play.

The wonderful effort on the part of the American Government to build a bridge of ships to Europe was cordially supported by the whole American people. Indeed, America had been brought into the war by the action of the German Government in directing submarine attacks upon her merchant vessels. Germany had undertaken to terrorize America. On the 7th of October, 1916, the U-53, a German war submarine made its appearance at Newport, R. I., and on the next day it sank five merchant vessels—British, Dutch and Norwegian just outside of three-mile limit. The action of the U-53 was not followed by similar expeditions. It was obviously intended as an object lesson to America to show the power of the submarine, to make plain that the Germans could destroy overseas trade, and that if the United States should endeavor to send troops across the water they would be able to destroy them.

Instead of terrorizing the American people, this brutal act aroused a general feeling of indignation, and public sentiment in America supported strongly the government in every effort it made to overcome the submarine threat. At the very beginning of the war, before there was any movement of soldiers to France, the American Navy was sent to help in the destruction of lurking submarines, and an immense effort was made to build ships to supply the places of those that had been sunk.

One of the first acts of American Congress was to appropriate $1,135,000,000 for this purpose. In the beginning two independent organizations were entrusted with the execution of the government's shipbuilding program. The Emergency Fleet Corporation and the United States Shipping Board. General Goethals, just returned from building the Panama Canal, was made manager of the Emergency Fleet Corporation, and Mr. William Denman was made chairman of the United States Shipping Board. Serious differences of opinion arose between these two men at the very start. Mr. Denman favored the building of a number of wooden ships, a policy which General Goethals did not approve. After a considerable delay both men resigned, and as a result of a reorganization, the Fleet Corporation was made subordinate to the Shipping Board, though still in entire control of construction. Rear-Admiral Capps succeeded General Goethals, but resigned shortly afterward on account of ill health. Then Rear-Admiral Harris was appointed to the office, but resigned because in his opinion he had not enough authority.

Then came Mr. Charles Pièz into the Fleet Corporation. Mr. Edward N. Hurley had succeeded Mr. Denman as chairman of the United States Shipping Board and under the direction of these two men much progress was made.

In the spring of 1918 under pressure from the Allies every endeavor was made by the United States to speed up. It had become a race between Germany and the United States. Germany was making gigantic endeavors to win the war before the Americans should come. In the pursuance of this speed-up policy, on April 16, 1918, Mr. Charles M. Schwab, chairman of the Board of Directors of the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, was made director-general of the Emergency Fleet Corporation.

During May, 1918, the first month after Mr. Schwab began his work, the record of production had mounted from 160,286 tons to 263,571 tons. During that month forty-three steel ships and one wooden ship had been completed and delivered. Mr. Schwab moved his headquarters from Washington to Philadelphia in order to be closer to the center of the shipbuilding region. Nearly fifty per cent of the work in progress was within a short range of Philadelphia. New shipyards, however, were built in various parts of the country.

The most important of these great shipyards was that at Hog Island, southwest of Philadelphia. This was the largest shipyard in the world. Its construction was a marvelous feat of engineering skill. It is true that the war ended before many ships had been produced but the fact that the United States had undertaken such a colossal accomplishment in so short a time had a splendid effect upon the allied morale. If the war had lasted a few months more the great shipyard would have justified its staggering expenditure of billions of dollars. It was a shipyard that haunted the thoughts of the Hun naval lords when they calculated the impossibility of overwhelming their new enemy from the new world on the sea with their stiletto-like submarines.

Hog Island was about ten times the size of ordinary shipyards. It employed over thirty thousand men. Being located outside the city limits of Philadelphia it was absolutely without any facilities, such as sewerage, water, electric power for either power purposes or illumination and telephone, and in addition to the ordinary work of constructing a shipyard all of such facilities had to be constructed.

The Hog Island Shipyard contained eighty-two miles of standard gauge railroad track, sixteen locomotives, twenty passenger cars, 469 freight cars, 206 motor driven vehicles, thirty-eight horse driven vehicles, seventy self-propelling locomotive trains, 451 stiff-neck derricks, twenty-eight self-propelling gantry cranes, one overhead bridge crane of one hundred ton capacity, and forty-two items of marine equipment, forty derricks, pile drivers, barges, tugs and motor boats. The telephone system measured by the number of calls per day would serve a city of approximately one hundred thousand inhabitants. There were four fire stations, and a police organization sufficient for a city of fifty thousand population.

From November 1, 1917, to December 31, 1918, 12,491,000 passengers were transported to and from Hog Island. The area of the shipyard was 927 acres; the area of the surface of the fifty shipways, 1,529,560 square feet; the area of the piers between the shipways, 442,193 square feet; the areas of the surface of the piers in the wet basin, 898,326 square feet. The square feet floor area of all buildings approximated 103 acres of floor space. The steel storage yards, equipment storage yards, and coal storage yards contained approximately 153 acres. There were 11.6 miles of fence, twenty-one miles of roads and two miles of sidewalk. The piling used in the construction of the shipyard would construct a railroad trestle about 137 miles in length. It required 115,000,000 feet of lumber to construct the shipyard.

It should be understood that this enormous plant was not a shipyard in the usual sense of the term. It was rather a shipbuilding assembling plant. In the old-line shipyard the steel plates and angles are fabricated on the premises in shops provided for the purpose. Hog Island Shipyard contracted with steel shops, such as bridge builders, big car plants, and others properly equipped, for shaping, punching and assembling steel to do this work from blue prints furnished by the shipyard, and to ship the fabricated steel to the shipyard at Hog Island where it was placed in storage and then ordered out to the different hulls, as it was needed. All of the turbines, gears and other machinery and outfitting were purchased from the manufacturers, and shipped to the shipyard, there to be assembled on the ship.

The Hog Island site was a wild swamp on September 20, 1917. In January, 1919, it was the largest shipyard in the entire world, with five ships of 7,500 tons net weight, each completed and delivered and in service, nine more ships of the same size launched and outfitting in the wet basin and soon to be delivered, fifty hulls in varying stages of completion on the fifty shipways, and more than 216,000 tons of fabricated steel ready to be placed on the ships on hand, in storage, sufficient to completely construct sixty ships.

The shipyard at Hog Island was the most important of the new shipyards which were producing American cargo ships, but it was only one of nearly two hundred such shipyards scattered all over the country. Some of these were of steel, others of wood and concrete, and there was considerable difference of opinion as to which was the most efficient type.

On May 31, 1918, the steamship Agawam was launched in the yards of the Submarine Boat Corporation at Newark, the Agawam being the first of 150 vessels of that type to be constructed in that yard. It was essentially a standardized steel cargo ship.

The plan was at this shipyard to launch two such vessels in each week. These ships had a carrying capacity of 5,500 tons, and an average speed of ten and a half knots. Twenty-seven steel mills, fifty-six fabricating plants, and two hundred foundries and equipment shops were called upon to construct a ship.

The first step in the construction of concrete ships was taken on April 3, 1918, when the construction of four 7,500-ton concrete ships was authorized in a Pacific coast shipyard. A concrete ship, the Faith, had been built at San Francisco by private capital. It had been carefully inspected and tested by Mr. R. J. Wig, of the Emergency Fleet Corporation, who had found it to be entirely satisfactory. A month later, fifty-eight more such ships were contracted for.

An important part of the Shipping Board's work was the manning of the vast fleet prepared under their direction. Not less than one hundred thousand officers and men had to be enrolled and trained for service on the merchant vessels operated under authority of the Shipping Board during the period of the war, this being in addition to another one hundred thousand used on the merchant ships operated by the navy.

For the new merchant marine the Shipping Board organized a recruiting and training service. Schools in navigation and marine engineering were built in various parts. In navigation schools the term was six weeks, and in the marine engineering schools one month. Only men who had been two years at sea were admitted. The men graduated were listed as mates, or assistant engineers in the merchant service.

In fifteen months those schools graduated more than five thousand men. The Shipping Board Training Service also undertook the training of seamen, firemen, cooks and stewards and later on developed a system of training crews with a fleet of training ships based at Atlantic and Pacific coast ports, with a ship authorized for the Gulf and another for the Great Lakes. On these training ships there were about five thousand apprentices. The course of instruction was six weeks, which was followed by actual sea service on the American vessels.

The extraordinary success of the program of the United States Shipping Board naturally depended very largely upon the fidelity of the workmen employed at the government plant, and upon their enthusiastic co-operation in the speed-up program.

The titanic task of bridging the Atlantic with a procession of ships had been thoroughly understood by the American Government from the beginning of the war. "We have to bridge two thousand miles of dangerous water to strike the blows which are required to end the menace of ruthless militarism," declared the Secretary of War. "Not a bullet can be fired, nor a mouth fed by Americans over there unless a rivet has first been driven home here."

The work done by the Shipping Board was under severe handicap. America had ceased to be a maritime nation—its flag had almost vanished from the seas. And with exception of a few widely scattered shipyards, merchant marine construction had almost become a lost art in America. Then came the sudden call to outdo the rest of the world in the upbuilding of a merchant marine. A call coming at a moment when the navy was undergoing the greatest expansion in its history, when most if not all of the established yards were feverishly engaged in rush construction of dreadnoughts, destroyers, submarines, fuel ships, tenders and other auxiliary craft, and when munition makers were absorbing that part of skilled labor which had not been called to remote navy yards nor private shipbuilding plants. So it was a case of not working from the ground up but of first securing the ground, upon which to make a start.

At the time of our entrance into the war, there were only thirty-seven steel shipyards in America and probably less than fifty thousand men were employed in them. By the fall of 1918 there were 171 shipyards, of which seventy-six are steel, eighty-six wood, seven concrete and two composite. Instead of fifty thousand shipworkers, there was an army of nearly four hundred thousand, with another two hundred and fifty thousand in training. The program of the Shipping Board, which was never completed, because of the unexpected ending of the war, was an enormous one. Contracts had been made for the construction of 2,249 passenger, cargo, refrigerator and tanker ships, ranging from 3,500 to 12,000 tons each, with an aggregate deadweight tonnage of 13,212,712. It had contracted for forty-two concrete ships, with a deadweight tonnage of 381,500, 170 wooden barges, 279 steel, wood and concrete tugs, of one thousand horse-power for ocean and harbor service, one hundred trawlers, and twenty-five harbor oil barges of a deadweight tonnage of fifty thousand.

"The men who built the ships," said Secretary of Navy Daniels, "as truly did their part in winning the war as did the men who were on the ships and in the trenches."

CHAPTER XXVIII

DEATH FROM THE SKY

AMERICA'S share of the thrilling war in the air naturally fell under two heads. The amazing work of our industrial army in aircraft production was not less wonderful than the work of the American government in enlisting and training American aviators for aviation service. When war was declared in April, 1917, the United States could hardly have been worse off than it was either in aircraft production or the training of aviators. She had then two aviation fields and 224 airplanes, of which only fifty-five were considered serviceable. The national Advisory Committee on Aeronautics advised that fifty-one of these airplanes were obsolete and the other four obsolescent. Some of these airplanes had been used during General Pershing's expedition into Mexico in his pursuit of Villa, and had shown serious defects.

The American air service, which at that time was part of the signal corps, had been given in 1914 an appropriation of $250,000 for the purchase of new airplanes and equipment. Five officers had been sent to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology for a course in aeronautics. When the war broke out in Europe in 1914 these men were the only technically trained officers in the air service of the United States. When America entered the war there were sixty-five officers, with an enlisted and civilian personnel of 1,330 men, and yet if there was one branch of warfare in which the people of the United States expected America to take the lead, it was in the warfare in the air.

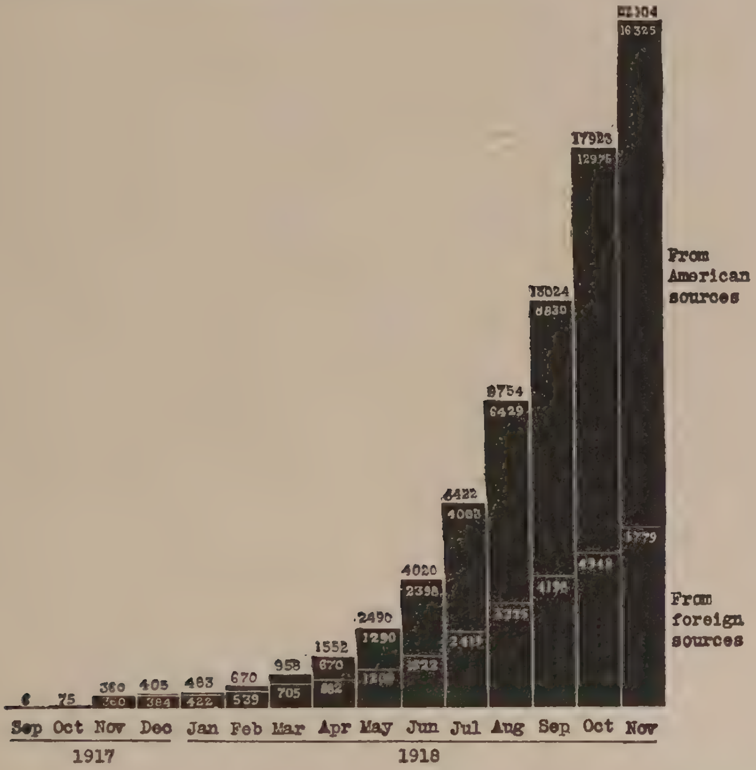
The airplane had been invented in America, both theoretically by Professor Langley, and practically by the Wright Brothers. It had been improved by American inventors, and many aviators of America had become famous. Moreover, many adventurous young men in the United States had early in the great war enlisted in the allied aero squadrons in France. Many of these had gained great fame. The service especially appealed to adventurous and daring young men. It was almost the only service in which men of unusual courage and physical ability were sure to obtain distinction. The young man who might become a lieutenant in the infantry or the artillery might serve with the greatest valor and never be heard of by the general public, but the daring aviator was a hero.

Among the Americans who enlisted at the beginning of the war in the French Foreign Legion as infantrymen, and afterwards were transferred to the aviation service, were William Thaw, Kiffen Rockwell and Victor Chapman. These, with Norman Prince, who had already flown in America, were sent to the French Aviation School and with Cowdin, Hall, Masson and the famous ace, Raoul Lufbery, trained in the art of fighting in the air.

From the beginning they seem to have had an idea of forming a squadron of American pilots. The French Ministry of War did not at first approve of this proposition, for America at the time was strictly neutral, and to have an American fighting unit among the French aero squadrons certainly might suggest a breach of neutrality. After a time, however, through the persistence of Norman Prince and Major Edmund Gros an American organization was formed, commanded by a French Captain, and was called the Escadrille Americaine.

This squadron was financed by Mr. and Mrs. W. K. Vanderbilt. It was composed of Captain Thenault and Lieutenant de Laage de Meux of the French service, with Lieutenant William Thaw, Sergeants Norman Prince, Elliott Cowdin, W. Bert Hall and Corporals Victor Chapman, Kiffen Rockwell and James McConnell. Soon after came Raoul Lufbery, Charles C. Johnson and Clyde Balsley. Later on, before the United States entered the war, more than two hundred American volunteers at one time or another, were members of this squadron. It became famous.

On November 16, 1916, it was notified by Colonel Barrès, Chief of French Aviation, that it could no longer be known as the Escadrille Americaine. It appeared that Count Von Bernstorff had protested to Washington that Americans were fighting on the French front, that French official statements contained the name Escadrille Americaine, and that these impudent Americans had even painted the head of a red Sioux Indian in full war paint on their machines.



Production of Airplane Engines to the End of Each Month. The Total Output of Liberty Engines to the Date of the Armistice was 13,574

Washington as in duty bound had protested to France. Major Gros then suggested as a name which would not lead to diplomatic disputes, Lafayette Escadrille.

THE LAFAYETTE ESCADRILLE

The American pilots of the Lafayette Escadrille were transferred from the French to the American service December 26, 1917, flying as civilians until formally commissioned in January, 1918.

Under the name of the Lafayette Flying Corps, the members of the Lafayette Escadrille took a most vigorous part in aerial activities. A report of its exploits when first organized reads as follows:

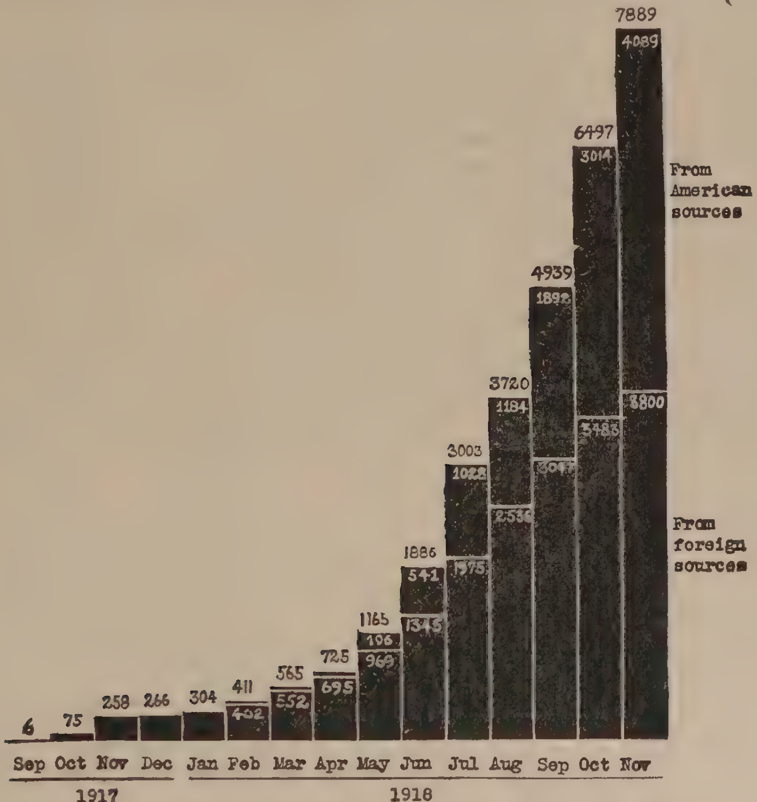
"The American pilots who enlisted in the French army are already distinguishing themselves by a series of exploits. The First Escadrille is composed of only seven Americans, and here are the results of the last seven days. Sergeant Elliott Cowdin attacked twelve German planes and brought one down within our lines (military medal). Sergeant Kiffen Rockwell a few days later brought down a L. V. G. enemy plane. The next day Bert Hall used his machine gun on another airplane which developed flames. Finally two days later Lieutenant William Thaw destroyed a Fokker."

The members of the Escadrille received over forty citations. Lufbery brought down seventeen German machines, and received the Legion of Honor, Military Medal, a War Cross with sixteen palm leaves, and the English Military Cross. Thaw was given the Legion of Honor, Military Medal and War Cross of four palms.

Men like these had made a great impression on the American imagination, for it seemed to be the general idea that it would be an easy task to send thousands of them to France in a short time, after America entered the war. But aviation training is no easy matter. It divides itself into three stages, elementary, advanced and final.

The elementary training included physical training, various practical and theoretical military subjects, the study of the structure and mechanism of airplanes, signaling, observation, ground gunnery and elementary flying. Advanced training consisted of specialized work necessary to make the man an all-round pilot observer. The final training which was given in Europe was special instruction on a particular type of machine, or the particular military problem to which the aviator was finally assigned.

All this took time, and as America began with only two fields, and only a few competent instructors, almost all of the early graduating classes were retained as instructors. But with true American energy, the aviation schools were enlarged and strengthened, and on the day of the armistice there were thirty-four fields in operation, with 1,063 instructors, 8,602 men had been graduated from elementary training, and 4,028 from advanced training. There were still in training 6,528 men. There had been sent to the American Expeditionary Force more than five thousand pilots and observers, of whom at the date of the armistice 2,226 were still in training. The total personnel of the air service, including non-flying officers and enlisted men, had increased from about 1,200 at the outbreak of the war to nearly 200,000 at the close.



Production of Service Planes to the End of Each Month

In addition to the purely American operations two full squadrons were attached to the British Royal Air Force, and fought with the British from the drive in Picardy to the battle of Cambrai. Others were in Italy.

AMERICAN AIR OPERATIONS

Strictly American operations began in March, 1918, by an American pursuit squadron, which patrolled the front at Villeneuve-les-Vértus. This was a complete success, and by the middle of May squadrons of all types were in operation over the allied front. At that time they were equipped with British and French service planes.

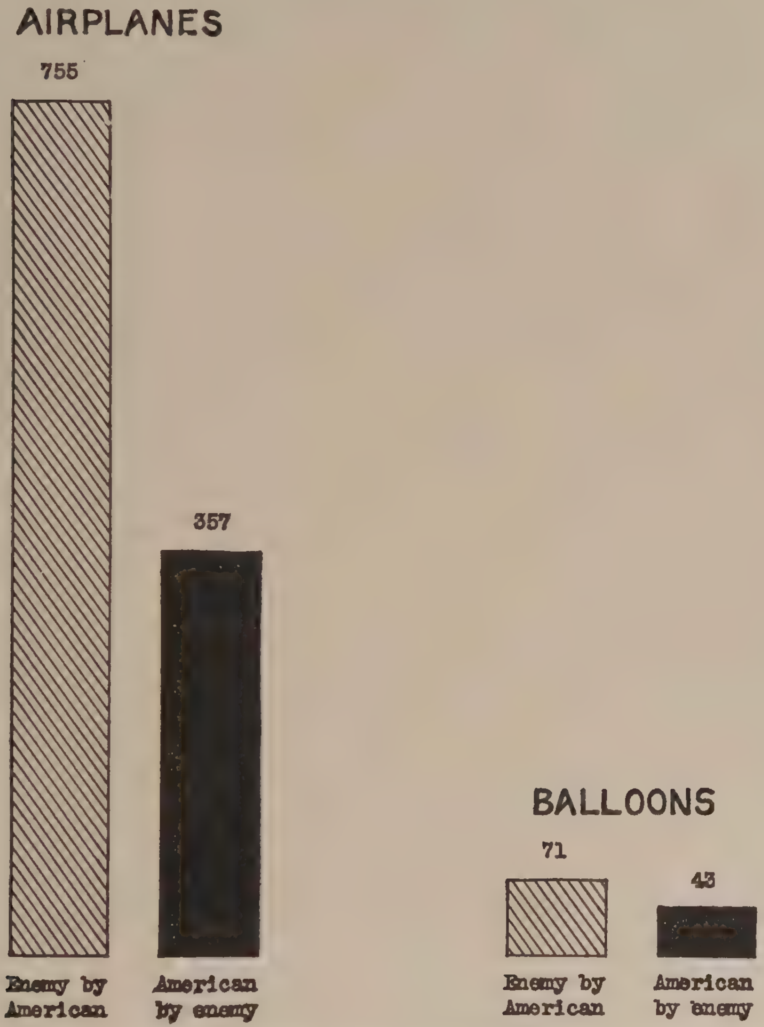
The squadrons were of four kinds: observation squadrons, whose duty was to make observations, take photographs and direct artillery fire; pursuit squadrons, which protected the observation planes under fire, or attacked the enemy; day bombers which dropped bombs on roads and railroads; and night bombers with heavy bombs, for the destruction of enemy works. In April, America had three squadrons—two for observation and one for pursuit. In May there were nine. By the time of the armistice there were forty-five, with 740 planes in action.

THE AIR FORCE AT CHÂTEAU-THIERRY

A description of the operation of the American Army in three important battles will give some idea of the way in which they developed. In the fighting associated with Château-Thierry, the Germans had a pronounced superiority in the air. The Americans, however, photographed the entire front, and by their vigorous attack played an important part in putting German air forces on the defensive. The American force consisted of four pursuit squadrons, three observation squadrons, and two balloon companies.

AT ST. MIHIEL

In the Battle of St. Mihiel there was the largest concentration of air force ever made up to that time in support of the American Army. One-third of this was American, and the rest French, British and Italian squadrons, operating under American command. Though they were hampered by bad weather, American artillery was directed with admirable accuracy. Photographs of every movement of the enemies' lines were made and pursuit planes with machine guns flew low over the German lines, firing at the infantry. The American air force was composed of twelve pursuit squadrons, twelve observation squadrons, three bombing squadrons, and fifteen balloon companies, and did approximately three times



Airplanes and Balloons Brought Down in Action by Americans and Germans as much work as was done during the Château-Thierry operation.

AIR ACTIVITIES IN THE ARGONNE

The Meuse-Argonne engagement covered six weeks, and the American air activities were continued during that period upon the same scale as during the St. Mihiel defensive. The losses, of course, were heavy, but replacements were made so rapidly that at the end of the action the American strength was greater than at the start.

During the war American aviators brought down 755 enemy planes. Their losses were only 357 planes. They destroyed seventy-one German balloons, losing forty-three American balloons. But the work of the American squadrons in great battles and in great bombing expeditions was perhaps not so picturesque, as the exploits of its individuals. The members of the Lafayette Flying Corps grew in fame, and hundreds of other names were added to the list of gallant knights of the air, who fought for America. Many of them lost their lives,—among them, Lufbery, Chapman, Rockwell, Prince and Quentin Roosevelt. Roosevelt had not been long enough in the service to have become an ace, but his gallant character and his conspicuous position as the son of Ex-President Roosevelt made him the center of world-wide interest and sympathy. Many, too, went through the war after dozens of hair-raising escapes without injury. Among these the most conspicuous was Edward Rickenbacker, whose name has become a household word.

AERIAL COMBAT

The work of the aviators in bombing, in photography, and in observation, no doubt, in the long run is the most important work that they do, but the most interesting work is that connected with individual combats. The aerial combat necessitates physical ability, skill, dauntless courage and brains. The aviator who is attacking attempts to obtain the most favorable position. He desires to surprise his adversary and to be flying at a higher altitude. He must weigh and estimate the relative qualities of his plane and

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U. S. BOMBING PLANES FLYING IN FORMATION

Photograph taken from machine above showing a bombing squadron flying over the lines.

U. S. Official Photograph.

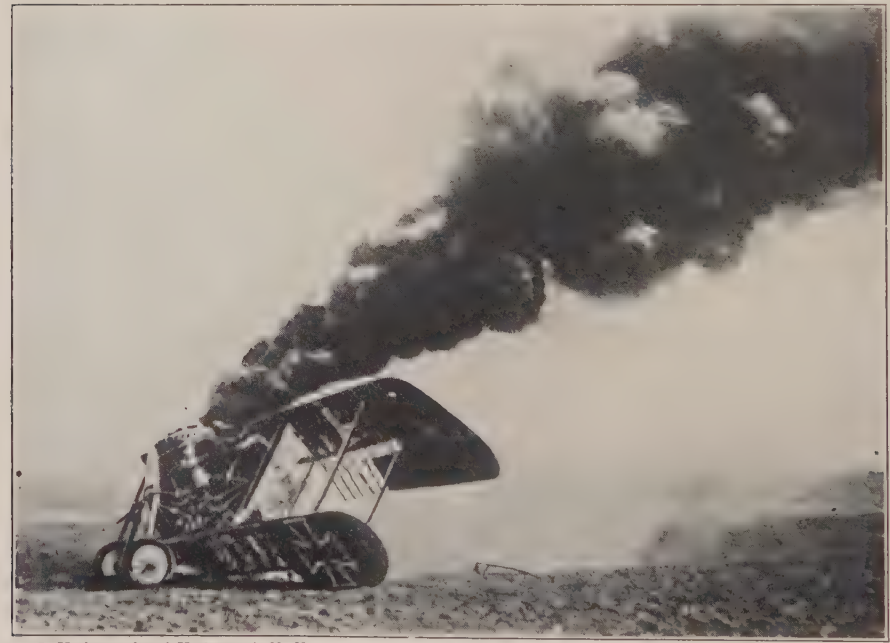
AN AMERICAN FLYING FIELD

Training ground of our military aviators to become the eyes of the army in France.

U. S. Official Photograph.

HIS ONLY RIVAL

American Air Service officer about to release a pigeon from an airplane. These birds were frequently used to convey messages to headquarters.



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THE FATE OF A GERMAN RAIDER

A powerful enemy airplane shot down in flames during an aerial battle is still burning after crashing inside the allied lines.

that of his adversary. The modes of attack differ according to the type of enemy machine. If the foe is alone, and his plane is a single seater, a favorite mode of attack is to dive down from on high and then turn up slightly under and behind the opponent. There the foe can be fired at without being able to return the fire as his gun is mounted forward.

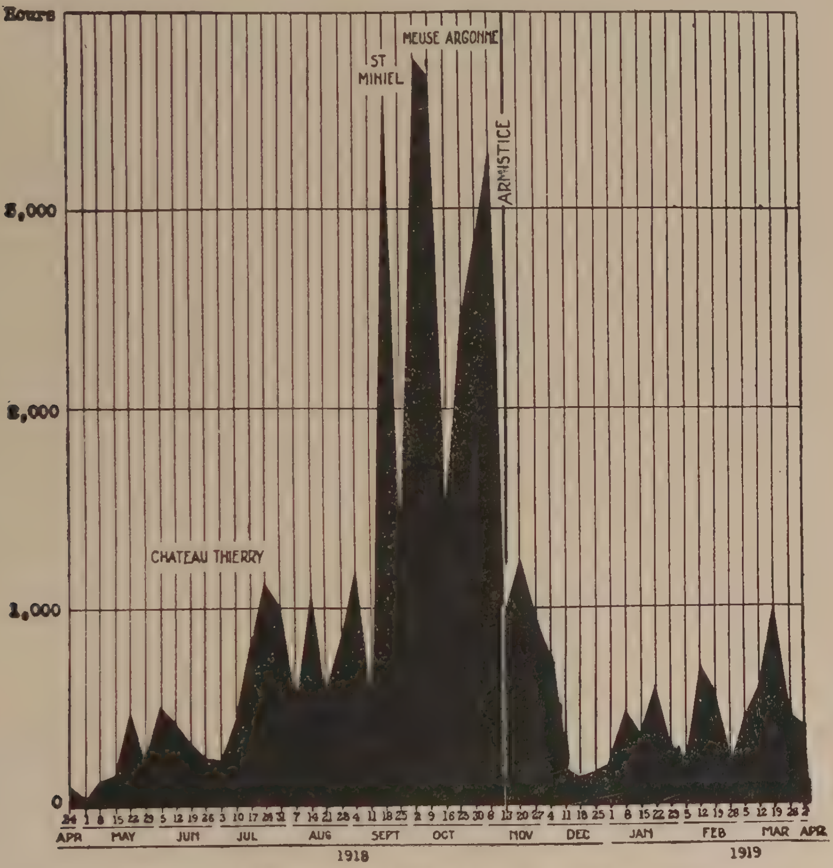


Chart Showing the Hours Spent in the Air Each Week by American Service Planes at the Front

Another mode of attack used when one meets the enemy head-on is to dive and come up behind the enemy, where again he is defenseless. The best position for this form of attack is from the front somewhat to the side where the enemy pilot cannot fire at the diver without shooting through his wings. The enemy, of course, dodges to prevent the attacking plane from obtaining this position, and the duel becomes a series of acrobatic maneuvers, each man trying to protect himself by dives, slips and loops so as to head out of the line of fire. If one is surprised in the air by an enemy, he always climbs, spiralling upward and watching for an opportunity to dive under him.

A two-seater is a more dangerous adversary, for it is better protected by gun-fire, but it has not the agility of the smaller machine. A good pilot must be able to do the most complicated acrobatic feats, and do them automatically while his mind is on other matters. He must handle his machine subconsciously, while he directs his attention upon his antagonist.

Much air fighting was done through squadrons, which flew high up with a decoy five thousand or six thousand feet below. When an enemy attacked a decoy the other members of the squadron came diving down, pumping shots into him from all directions. The aviators, also, did other work besides their fighting. Sometimes they carried members of the secret service, and landed them in the enemy country. At other times, they carried bundles of leaflets or newspapers designed for propaganda and dropped them among the hostile troops. Sometimes they attacked the enemy balloons, and always they were engaged in tasks requiring intelligence, coolness and courage.

AIRCRAFT BUILDING IN THE UNITED STATES

Brilliant as was the development of this army of soldiers of the air, the industrial effort which enabled the United States to produce the necessary planes for such an army, with their motors, armament and equipment was even more wonderful. When the United States entered the war no American-built airplane had ever mounted a machine gun, while such things as oxygen apparatus, electrically heated clothing, radio communication with airplanes, landing and bombing fires, electric lighting, bomb-dropping devices, instruments for measuring height and speed were entirely unknown. Indeed, the average man does not remember that during the first year of the great war there was no fighting in the air, that it was not until the summer of 1915 that aircraft were provided with armament. The hostile aviators waved their hands to each other in a friendly way as they passed.

The first recorded aerial combat was where a Russian aviator destroyed a German machine by ramming it as a destroyer might a submarine. Both machines crashed to the ground. It is true some experiments were made. The United States had successfully fired a machine gun from an airplane in 1912, and at the opening of the war the French had equipped a few heavy airplanes to carry machine guns, but in August, 1915, the usual equipment for an aviator was a rifle, a shot gun or an automatic pistol. Some of the earlier planes also carried a few trench grenades or steel darts to drop upon the enemy's trenches.

Our ignorance about airplane instruction and equipment in the early days of 1917 was no greater than our want of knowledge of what would be necessary for a nation with our resources to do to be of service to our allies. In February, The Signal Corps discussed the possibility of building 1,000 planes in a year. In March they raised this number to 2,500. In April when war was declared we raised it to 3,700. In the early part of June our joint Army and Navy Board recommended to the Secretaries of War and the Navy that we start at once to produce 22,000 airplanes, 12,000 for active service in France and the remainder for training our flyers and for the defense of the United States.

Even then, the task before the United States was not realized. For every airplane spare parts must be made equivalent to eight-tenths of another airplane. Producing 22,000 airplanes, therefore, really meant producing 40,000 airplanes. The whole country was interested in the American plan for aircraft supremacy. On May 12th Congress voted $10,800,000 for military aeronautics. On June 15th an appropriation of $43,450,000 was voted for the same purpose. On July 24, 1917, the President signed a bill appropriating $640,000,000 for aircraft.

Three joint boards were appointed to aid in the great aviation project—the joint Army and Navy Board on Design and Specifications, the joint Army and Navy Board on Aerocognizances, and the joint Army and Navy Board on Zeppelins. The Council of National Defense appointed an Aircraft Production Board, with Mr. Howard E. Coffin as chairman. The duty of this board was to bring manufacturers together, and to assist the government in stimulating the production of air machines, aircraft material, and the construction of aviation schools and supply depots. Arrangements were made with certain leading institutions to give instruction in military aeronautics. These were the Universities of California, Texas, Illinois, and Ohio, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Georgia School of Technology, Carnegie University, Princeton University.

The airplanes used in Europe when America went into the war had been built by private firms. Agents for these European manufacturers at once rushed to the United States to demonstrate the excellence of their various machines. Many of these machines had been very successful, but it was evident that it was impossible in America to make a decision, as to which were the best. Moreover, the United States had no desire to pay royalties for the use of these machines. Consequently, the United States sent at once to Europe a commission of six civilian and military experts headed by Major R. C. Bolling, who studied the question and advised the War Department. Requests were also sent to England, France and Italy for aviation experts, and one hundred skilled mechanics were sent to Europe to be trained in the foreign airplane plants.

Pending the reports from the Bolling commission the Signal Corps bent its energies upon the manufacture of training equipment. Orders were given to French factories for 5,875 planes of regular French design to be delivered by July 1, 1918. Much of the raw materials for these machines was furnished by the United States. The manufacture of machines in America was a very difficult undertaking. It was necessary for our aircraft officers to go to France, England and Italy and study first principles. Only in one respect were we prepared in professional skill and mechanical equipment to go ahead. This was in the matter of producing engines. Few aviation engines, it is true, had been produced, but in the automobile industry there was a vast engine-building capacity, which with a little change could be used for the manufacture of airplane engines.

The production of airplanes, it soon appeared was something more than a mere manufacturing job. The factories had to be equipped, and the raw materials procured, and sometimes actually produced. When our designers had saturated themselves in the science and were abreast of the development of Europe they went ahead with relentless speed, but before that condition was attained there naturally was much waste.

The United States had no accurate information in the beginning as to sizes, capacities and types of planes or engines, or character of ordnance, armament or aeronautical appliances, necessary for the service. Three hundred and fifty airplanes ordered in April, 1917, proved to be so inadequate in their design that a few months later the manufacturers of them asked to be released from their contract. Yet, when the armistice came America had produced 11,754 airplanes with most of the necessary spare parts, and in October, 1918, the factories in this country turned out 1,651 planes, which was at the rate of twenty thousand planes per year. This meant that the 22,000 airplanes hoped for in July, 1917, would have been produced in twenty-three months after that day. On the day the armistice was signed the United States had obtained from all sources 16,952 planes. Of course, no such number of planes was ever at one time ready for use.

The mortality in airplanes is very great. The production of airplanes presented many problems. An airplane must have wings and an engine with a propellor to make it go. It must have a tail and a body; part of the tail moves sideways, and steers the airplane from left to right; part moves up and down and makes the airplane go up or down. Parts of the wings move up and down and make the airplane tip from side to side. All these things must be connected to controls in the hands of the pilot. In the airplanes built for the United States the propellor was in front pulling the machine. The United States airplanes were biplanes, which were of a greater strength than monoplanes. Every part of the biplane had to be as light as possible.

The principal components of an airplane are wood, sheet steel, wire, cloth and varnish, all of which have to be of the best quality. Castor oil is used as a lubricant. To procure these materials turned out to be difficult. The supply of castor oil was not nearly sufficient, and the government was compelled to procure from Asia castor beans enough to seed 100,000 acres in this country. When the United States entered the war linen was used for the covering of wings. The three principal sources of flax, were Belgium, Russia and Ireland. Belgium and Russia could no longer be counted on, and Ireland could not supply enough. Elaborate experiments were made with cotton fabrics, and two grades of cotton goods were finally manufactured, and turned out to be better than linen. To stretch the cloth tight and create on it a smooth surface a varnish was used, called a dope, and a new dope suitable for the cotton fabric had to be discovered.

THE LIBERTY MOTOR

America's main contribution to the war in the air was the Liberty engine. Major-General George O. Squier, Chief Signal Officer of the army in an address before the American Institute of Electrical Engineers of New York City said: "As we look back on the record of accomplishment in the problem of obtaining large numbers of high-powered aviation engines for our army and navy air services, both in this country and abroad, it seems to most of us who are in close contact with the work and the difficulties, more like a fairy tale than the statement of hard facts which it is in reality. On the face of things it certainly would seem to be the height of presumption to assume that this country could, following its almost total neglect of aviation development in previous years, hope to design, develop and produce in unprecedented quantities an acceptable aircraft engine of greater power than had been evolved by any of the European nations even under the spur of governmental encouragement and tremendous war demands. Yet just that and nothing else was the only thing to do, and the story of its doing is one of the most brilliant chapters in the history of our country's part in the great war.

"So well recognized had the value of the Liberty engine become that the Allies had an order, at the time of signing the armistice, for 16,741 airplane engines, and were constantly endeavoring to increase their rate of monthly delivery. Airplanes were being designed around this engine in all allied countries, and it was fast becoming the predominating aeronautical engine of the allied cause. It is of interest in this connection to note that this standardized engine already has been tested in the twenty-four-cylinder model, and showed results which will prove that the original basic idea will provide for engines of any size which would have been required for any probable increase in airplane size during years of continuation of the war. The sixteen-cylinder was also proved by the success of the larger engine."

In May, 1917, the equipment division of the Signal Corps, after a careful study of allied engines, found it highly advisable for the American Army to design and produce a standard engine of its own. The Allies in Europe were using so many different makes of engines, the French having developed forty-six, and the British using thirty-seven, that if the United States should have to study all these engines and decide which was best, procure suitable drawings and specifications and negotiate with foreign owners for rights to manufacture, the delay that would be necessary might have disastrous results.

Two expert engineers, Mr. J. G. Vincent, of the engineering staff of the Packard Motor Company, and Mr. E. J. Hall, of the Hall-Scott Motor Car Company, men qualified in talent and in experience for the work, were selected to design a new engine. Arrangements were made by which these men could draw freely upon the experience and achievement of all American inventors regardless of patent rights.

In association with Colonel E. A. Deeds, and Colonel S. D. Waldon, of the Signal Department, the Liberty engine was designed, and in spite of the enormous difficulties was soon being produced at extraordinary speed. Meanwhile, many other engines were also produced, chiefly for use in the training service. In the nineteen months of the war the United States turned out complete and ready for service 32,420 aeronautic engines. Of these 15,572 were Liberty engines. Meanwhile, a commission sent abroad for the purpose had selected types of foreign service planes suitable for this country. These models had to be redesigned for the Liberty motor. The first successful type of plane to come into quantity production was the British DeHaviland 4. Operations began February, 1918, and by October a monthly output of 1,200 had been reached. By the time of the armistice four other airplanes had been tested and adopted by the United States Government. They were the Lepere, the United States DeHaviland 9A, the Martin Bomber, and the Loening two-seater fighter.

Many difficulties were encountered in obtaining the spruce and other lumber used in the manufacture of the airplanes. Labor difficulties arose in the northwest brought about by I. W. W. The Chief-of-Staff of the army formed a military organization to take care of the situation, known as the Spruce Production Division of the Signal Corps, under the command of Colonel Brice P. Disque, and a Loyal Legion of Loggers and Lumbermen was organized to offset the I. W. W. propaganda. Specifications for logs were standardized, financial assistance given, and a system of instruction instituted for the personnel.

Many striking inventions were developed by the Science and Research Division of the Signal Corps. Of these, a telescopic signaling device, which made possible signaling in daylight over a distance of eighteen miles, and with the aid of an ultra-violet light signaling by night for six miles was of great use. Other inventions were propaganda balloons with a range of more than one thousand miles, improvements in the means of navigating airplanes with the aid of a sextant and artificial horizon, bomb sight stabilizers, and most remarkable of all airplane telephone apparatus by which the voice can be used to communicate between airplanes in fight and from airplanes to the ground.

Brigadier-General Mitchell in referring to these inventions said: "America is a nation of initiative—it had many men with inventive minds. This much is established from either an economic or military standpoint, that henceforth whoever holds the mastery and supremacy of the air will hold the supremacy and mastery of all the elements, the air, the land and the water. If we are to hold the mastery of land and sea, we must master the air as well. The United States must organize to lead in aerial development, so that the country that invented the airplane may also be a leader in its expansion and use."

The war built up in the United States a new industry in the manufacture of airplanes. It developed new inventions. The future will decide the result.

AIRPLANE ARMAMENT

The development of armament for the fighting in the air began with the use of Lewis machine guns, made for use in the trenches. These ground guns were taken into the planes and fired from observer's shoulders. On account of the great speed of the airplane it was only with rapid fire that one could hope to bring down a hostile plane. The ordinary machine gun, however, soon began to be adapted to airplane use. The pursuit airplanes which engaged in the spectacular air combats were single seaters, the pilot of such a machine could not drop his controls and fire a machine gun from his shoulder. This necessitated a fixed gun that could be operated while the pilot maintained complete control of the machine, and led to the invention of the synchronizing gear, where a fixed gun fires through the whirling propellor without hitting the propellor blades. This method of using the machine gun was a development after various other methods had been tried.

In three years of warfare the Allies developed only a single machine which could be synchronized to fire through a revolving airplane propeller. In twelve months of actual effort America produced two others as good, both susceptible of factory quantity production. The United States also built balloons at a rate sufficient to supply more than its own needs, and devised a commercial practical method of obtaining non-inflammable helium gas for balloons and airships, which because of its safety from fire opened up a new era for the dirigible balloon.

The war ended too soon for the full force of the American effort in the production of machines and in the training of aviators to be felt. But the moral effect was, no doubt, great. The Germans knew well what was going on. They had lost their early supremacy in the air, and they knew that in a short time they would be overwhelmed by the tremendous airplane fleets that were coming from the west. Indeed, already hundreds of raids were working havoc in the great industrial centers of the Rhine. Cologne, Stuttgart, Mannheim, Mainz and Coblenz had been bombarded. Between June 6th and November 10th 550 tons of bombs had been dropped on enemy territory by the British squadrons alone. Plans had been made for bombing Berlin and other centers. In one more year the war might have been won in the air.

CHAPTER XXIX

AMERICAN BUSINESS MEN IN THE WAR

BEFORE America entered into the war, it had been made plain by the course of events in Europe that if America should be compelled to fight it would be just as necessary to organize our civilian and economic forces for victory as it would be to mobilize a great army. Agitation in favor of preparation had been going on from the beginning. Theodore Roosevelt and General Wood had been especially insistent, and the President of the United States had headed a preparedness parade on the streets of Washington. On August 29, 1916, a law creating a Council of National Defense was approved by the President.

According to the terms of this law the members of this council were the Secretary of War, Secretary of the Navy, Secretary of the Interior, Secretary of Agriculture, Secretary of Commerce and the Secretary of Labor. It was provided by the terms of the law creating the Council of National Defense that it should nominate to the President, and the President should appoint an Advisory Commission, consisting of not more than seven persons "each of whom shall have special knowledge of some industry, public utility, or the development of some natural resource or be otherwise specially qualified in the opinion of the council for the performance of the duties hereinafter provided."

In accordance with this provision, the following men were appointed upon the Advisory Commission: Daniel Willard, President of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, chairman; Howard E. Coffin, Vice-President, Hudson Motor Company; Julius Rosenwald, President, Sears, Roebuck & Company; Bernard M. Baruch, Banker; Dr. Hollis Godfrey, President, Drexel Institute; Samuel Gompers, President, American Federation of Labor; and Dr. Franklin Martin, Secretary, General American College of Surgeons, Chicago.

According to the terms of the law the object and purposes of the Council of National Defense were as follows:

> That a Council of National Defense is hereby established for the co-ordination of industries and resources for the national security and welfare. That it shall be the duty of the Council of National Defense to supervise and direct investigations and make recommendations to the President and the heads of executive departments as to the location of railroads with reference to the frontier of the United States so as to render possible expeditious concentration of troops and supplies to points of defense; the co-ordination of military, industrial, and commercial purposes in the location of extensive highways and branch lines of railroad; the utilization of waterways; the mobilization of military and naval resources for defense; the increase of domestic production of articles and materials essential to the support of armies and of the people during the interruption of foreign commerce; the development of seagoing transportation; data as to amounts, location, method and means of production

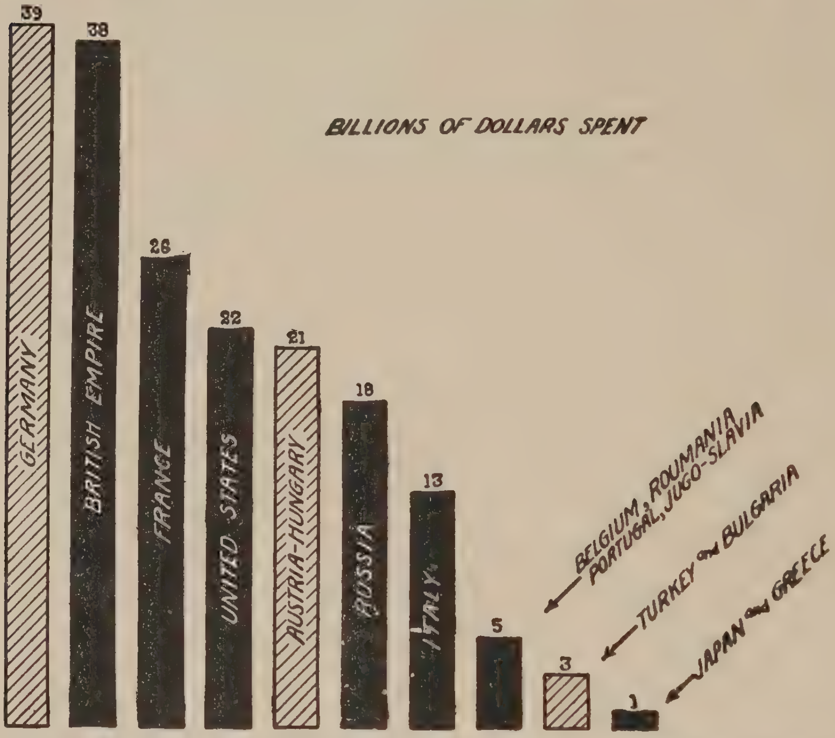


Chart Showing, in Billions of Dollars, the Amount Spent by Each Nation for Direct War Expenses to the Spring of 1919. The Total Expenditures were $186,000,000,000.

and availability of military supplies; the giving of information to producers and manufacturers as to the class of supplies needed by the military and other services of the government, the requirements relating thereto, and the creation of relations which will render possible in time of need the immediate concentration and utilization of the resources of the nation."

The administrative work of the council was carried on by a director and various committees immediately under his supervision. The first director of the council was Mr. W. S. Gifford, now controller of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, who was succeeded later by Grosvenor B. Clarkson, who had been secretary of the council and also director of the Field Division. The council began as a small body employing five persons, and occupying three rooms in an office building. It ended by becoming an organization with 1,600 people on its pay roll, with offices occupying a whole block and terminals in distant prairies.

The Council of National Defense was itself, however, but a development. The Navy Department had taken the first step toward linking up the nation's fighting forces with its industrial system. It had established the Naval Consulting Board, to which electric engineering and other scientific societies were invited to send representatives. This meant the enlistment of scientists, inventors and technical experts in the service of the nation. To enlist the organizers of production a committee on industrial preparedness was organized, with a chairmanship in Howard E. Coffin, engineer, and captain of industry. This committee undertook to carry through a complete survey of the whole industrial capacity of the United States, for the purposes of war. The Council of National Defense was a direct result of the Committee on Industrial Preparedness.

THE DOLLAR-A-YEAR MEN

Immediately upon the outbreak of the war the Advisory Commission of the Council of National Defense appointed a number of committees "of specially qualified persons to serve without compensation" covering many lines of industry. Each of these committees was composed of experts and business men, and each was charged with some special duty.

Members of these committees and boards were business men, who were placing themselves and their resources at the service of their country without pay. The council made of itself a channel for centralizing and directing this voluntary effort. Among these men were numbered hundreds of the greatest business men of the country. They were known as Dollar-a-Year Men, and it was owing to their loyalty and patriotism, as well as their ability that the mobilization of the forces of the country was accomplished with such success.

WAR INDUSTRIES BOARD

The most important board in the Council of National Defense was the General Munitions Board. This was reorganized in July, 1917, as the War Industries Board. It was composed of seven members selected by President Wilson, himself. These men were Frank A. Scott, chairman; Lieutenant-Colonel Palmer E. Pierce, Rear-Admiral Frank M. Fletcher, Bernard M. Baruch, Robert S. Brookings, Robert S. Lovett, and Hugh Frayne. This change was caused by the fact that voluntary workers were made to appear as buying from themselves as producers, and selling to themselves as agents of the government. This was not, in fact, true, as they had no power to buy or to fix prices, but only to recommend.

It seemed advisable to avoid even the appearance of the possibility of graft, and disassociate the industrial committees of all connection with purchases in behalf of the government. The War Industries Board in 1918 was formally separated from the Council of National Defense. It was the American equivalent of the British and French Munition Ministers, with a difference that its head did not occupy a place in the cabinet.

On March 4, 1918, when the board became independent, it consisted of Bernard M. Baruch, chairman; R. S. Brookings, Brigadier-General P. E. Pierce, Rear-Admiral F. F. Fletcher, Hugh Frayne, Edwin B. Parker, George N. Peck, J. L. Replogle, L. L. Summers, Alexander Legge. The War Industries Board established certain commodity sections and divisions to deal with the problems of the war with respect to particular products and activities.

Among these are agricultural implements, animal and hand-drawn vehicles, wood products, automotive products, brass and copper, building materials, chains, chemicals and explosives, cranes, electric and power equipment, hide, leather and tanning material, linen thread, linters, and cotton goods, lumber, machine tools, mica, non-ferrous metals, optical glass instruments, power production, small tools and hardware, steel supplies, tin, tobacco, wiring cable, wood chemicals, wools, fire prevention.

Other important functions of the board were carried out by the Allied Purchasing Commission, whose duty was the making of purchases for the Allies; the Priorities Commission, with the power to issue priority orders governing the precedence of the supply of raw materials required by the government on account of war activities; the Conservation Division which endeavored to secure economy in the use of men and materials in commercial business as an aid to war requirements; and the Price Fixing Committee with power to arrange a joint agreement with the representatives of various industries fixing maximum prices for particular products.

The War Industries Board was thus originally one of the agencies of the Council of National Defense, and just as it became independent, so other boards and committees went through a similar process of separation, from the creating body. The Shipping Committee became the Shipping Board, the Committee on Coal Production became the Fuel Administration. Other important committees and boards thus originated include the Aircraft Board, the Commercial Economy Board, the Industrial Inventory, Highways, Transport, Raw Materials, Supplies and Labor Committees and the General Medical Board and Medical Section. Just as the business men of the country were giving their services gratuitously to the War Industries Board, so the scientific men of the country were working in the Department of Science and Research.

NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL

In April, 1916, the National Academy of Science had offered its services toward organizing the scientific resources of the country. As the result of this offer the National Research Council was organized, composed of the chiefs of the technical bureaus of the army and navy, the heads of the government bureaus engaged in scientific research, investigators representing educational institutions, and other representatives of industrial engineering research. This National Research Council when the war began became the Department of Science and Research of the Council of National Defense. Its duties were various, it acted as an advisory agent of the Signal Corps, obtained scientific information relating to war problems, investigated patents, invented plans for new developments in concrete available for ships, gasolene tanks for aviation, signaling lamps, aviation equipment, gases, optical range finders and hundreds of necessities for modern war.

COMMITTEE ON LABOR

The Committee on Labor of the Council of National Defense, of which Samuel Gompers, a member of the Advisory Commission, was chairman, was one of the most important committees in connection with the war, as was also the Woman's Committee of the Council. The work of each of these committees is elsewhere described. The Council of National Defense when it began its work found in every part of the country patriotic organizations, organized with a desire to serve in the defense of their country.

STATE COUNCILS OF DEFENSE

In several states Committees of Public Safety were already appointed. On April 6, 1917, the council instituted a section on co-operation with the states. The Secretary of War, as chairman of the Council of Defense issued to governors of all states and to the commissioners of the District of Columbia a request that they create State Councils of Defense to co-operate with the National Council. Before the end of June every state had a State Council, either by appointment of the governor or by action of State Legislature. These councils became the recognized war bodies in each state. Local Councils of Defense were also organized in cities, counties and townships, so that altogether there were more

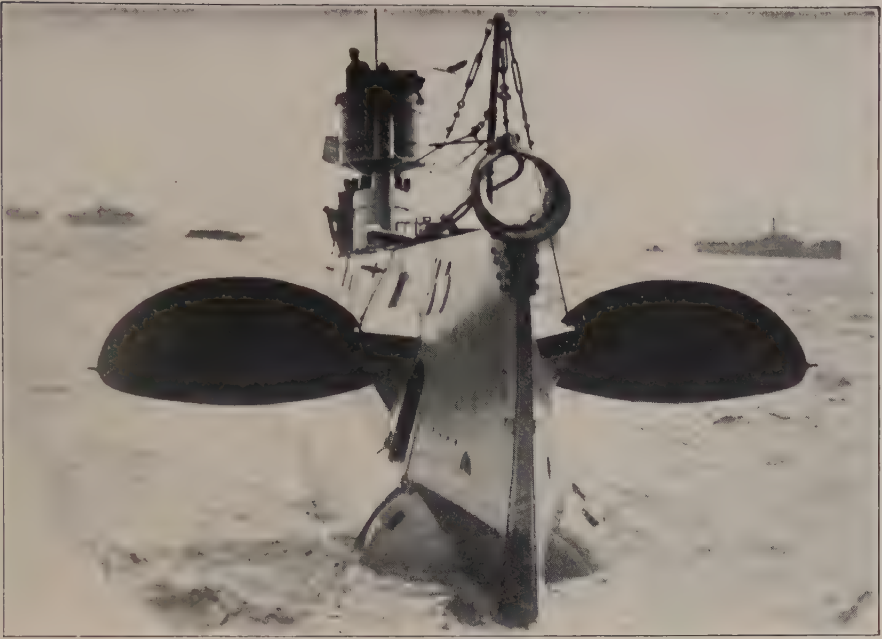


Photo from Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.

DIVING GEAR OF A U. S. SUBMARINE

These huge vanes act like wings in submerging or rising to the surface.

© *Committee of Public Information.* *From Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.*

THE U. S. SUBMARINE AL-9 AT HER BASE ON THE COAST OF IRELAND

From this base our submarines kept up a constant patrol which did much to hold down the German submarine menace.

U. S. Official Photographs.

AVIATION

One of the most spectacular features of our war program was the tremendous aviation program which was just coming into production at the time of the armistice. This general view shows three planes of the latest design in the air at one of our twenty-eight aviation fields. Every field has its own erecting shops, repair shops and hangars to house the "ships" as the pilots call them. The central figure shows a general view in an aeronautical repair shop. On the right is a scene in the wing shop, showing wing frames piled up.

than 4,000 such councils. This Council of Defense system soon became recognized both in Washington and in the states, as the best method of reaching the individual citizen, and through them requests and recommendations of the Council of National Defense were distributed wide-cast.

These state organizations increased by thousands the number of business men who were thus mobilized for the war.

AIRCRAFT BOARD

There were many others forms of government activity which interested the business men of the country besides the work of the various boards and commissions already mentioned. The work of the Aircraft Board especially attracted public attention. The personnel of the board when organized according to the provisions of the law of October 1, 1917, was as follows: Chairman, John D. Ryan; civilian members, Richard F. Howe, Harry B. Thayer; representing the army, Major-General Squier, Colonel Montgomery, Colonel Deeds; representing the navy, Rear-Admiral Taylor, Captain Irwin, Lieutenant-Commander Atkins, Secretary John W. Ford.

The duty of the board was, as indicated by its name, to direct and supervise the purchase, production and manufacture of aircraft, and whatever was used in connection therewith. This commission made agreements concerning the use of patents relating to the production of aircraft, with a corporation known as the Manufacturer's Aircraft Corporation, by which various patents held in the United States were placed at the disposal of the government. Associated with the work of the Aircraft Board was the National Advisory Committee of Aeronautics, organized under the provisions of the Naval Appropriation Laws, which co-operated with the various government departments, private institutions of research, and universities in questions connected with the development and application of aeronautics, and directed and supervised the scientific study of the problems of flight.

Another phase of governmental activity in connection with business was the work of the Alien Property Custodian, elsewhere described in detail. There was also the National War Labor Board, composed of five representatives of employers and five of the American Federation of Labor. Each of the five was to nominate a representative of the public to be added to the membership of the board. The National Industrial Conference Board named as their representatives: Loyall A. Osborne, L. F. Loree, W. H. Van Dervoort, C. E. Michael, B. L. Worden; and the American Federation of Labor named: Frank J. Hayes, W. L. Hutcheson, Thomas J. Savage, Victor A. Olander, T. A. Rickert. The employer representatives then nominated Ex-President Taft, and the union representatives Frank P. Walsh, as representatives of the public. These twelve men were appointed as members of the board by the President of the United States.

WAR LABOR BOARD

In the proclamation instituting the National War Labor Board, the President declared its powers, functions, and duties to be as follows: "To settle by mediation and conciliation controversies arising between employers and workmen in fields of production necessary for the effective conduct of the war, or in other fields of national activity, delays and obstructions, which might in the opinion of the National Board affect detrimentally such production; to provide by direct appointment or otherwise for committees or boards to sit in various parts of the country where controversies arise, and secure settlement by local mediation and conciliation, and to summon the parties to controversies for hearing and action by the National Board, in the event of failure to secure settlement by mediation and conciliation."

Before the organization of this board there had been an enormous loss of time through labor strikes, the loss from April 26th to October 6, 1917, according to investigation made by the National Industrial Conference Board amounting to 6,285,519 production days. During the month of September, 1917, the United States lost more working days through strikes than the German Empire from the same cause in the whole year of 1916. Through the work of this new board an immense improvement in labor conditions was brought about. Its work was co-ordinated with the work of similar boards already in existence, such as a Shipbuilding Labor Adjustment

Board, the President's Commission, which investigated labor conditions in the West, the National Adjustment Commission to adjust conditions of labor in the loading and unloading of vessels, the Saddlery Adjustment Commission, the Arsenals and Navy Yard Commission, the Cantonment Adjustment Commission, and the Railroad Wage Commission.

FEDERAL TRADE COMMISSION

Another governmental activity in connection with business was the Federal Trade Commission, with William B. Colver as chairman, which undertook to supervise associations engaged in export trade. This commission also carried out the provisions of the Trading with the Enemy Law, by establishing a license system for corporations desiring to use patented or copyrighted matter owned or controlled by the enemy.

FOOD, FUEL AND SHIPPING

The Tariff Commission and the War Trade Board controling imports and exports were also important. The chairman of the War Trade Board was Vance C. McCormick. Its work was done through the following bureaus whose names will give an idea of the importance of the board: Exports, Imports, Enemy Trade, War Trade Intelligence, Administration, Transportation, Research, Tabulation and Statistics, Foreign Agents and Reports, Branches and Customs, Division of Information. It had offices in sixteen of the great cities of the country. A War Trade Council was also instituted by the President, consisting of the Secretaries of State, Agriculture, Commerce, the Treasury, and the chairman of the United States Shipping Board and the Food Administrator. This council acted as an advisory body to the President and to the War Trade Board, the Fuel Administration, the Food Administration, and the Shipping Board with the Emergency Fleet Corporation, were also government activities which called upon business men for patriotic support, and assistance. In the extensive mobilization of the industries of this country, and of their leaders, the United States was able to take advantage of the experiences of European countries which had been engaged in war for several years.

Early in 1917 Lord Northcliffe as a special representative of the British Government emphasized in addresses in this country the necessity of industrial mobilization. He helped to rouse the business men to their duty, but the leaders of American thought had not been unobservant. They were already preparing. Much had still to be learned, but American business men are quick to learn. They made mistakes, but they corrected their mistakes.

No doubt, there was profiteering, no doubt many of the great factories were able to enrich their owners, but the great mass of the business men were patriotic and honest. They not only were willing to give their fortunes and their abilities, and their time to serve the government, but the immense sums of money contributed by them to the great charities and organizations of mercy, instituted during the war, have made a record for the United States of which the American business man may well be proud.

CHAPTER XXX

How America Raised Funds

THE cost of the World War was enormous. After the Revolutionary War the debt of our government was $76,781,953. After the war of 1812 it was $127,041,341. After the Mexican War it amounted to $68,304,796. And the total debt after the close of the Civil War was $2,844,649,616. This amount had been reduced so that the debt of the United States at the time the United States entered the war was in round figures one billion of dollars. When adjustments and settlements have all been made the maximum debt for the present war will be about $30,000,000,000 against which total should be placed an asset of about $10,000,000,000 of interest-bearing obligations of foreign governments, representing loans made to our allies during the progress of the war. These loans in the natural course of events will be repaid, and according to the law under which they were made, such repayments must be used in the liquidation of a corresponding amount of our national indebtedness.

The national wealth of the United States is estimated as about $300,000,000,000, so that the debt today is about ten per cent of the national wealth. As great as this debt is, it is small compared with the debt of the other great nations, taking part in the war, compared with their resources. The national debt of Great Britain is now about $36,000,000,000, while its wealth is estimated at $120,000,000,000. Great Britain, too, has made loans to her allies and Dominions amounting to about $5,000,000,000, which presumably will be repaid. The gross debt of France is about $36,000,000,000, the gross debt of Italy about $12,600,000,000, the gross debt of Germany about $39,000,000,000.

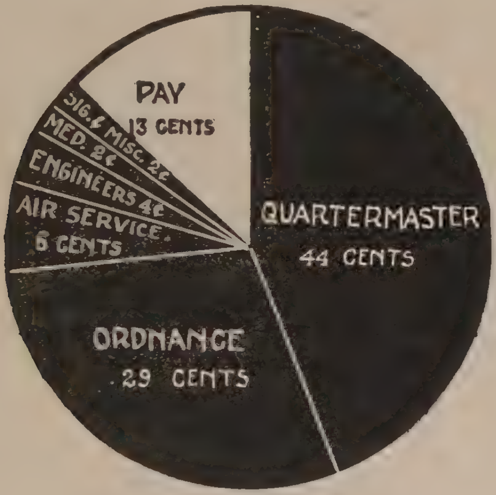
In order to pay its debt the Congress of the United States has instituted an annual sinking fund beginning in 1920, which calls for the retirement each year of two and one-half per cent of the aggregate amount of bonds and notes issued for war purposes. The specific appropriation called for by this act in addition to that for the interest charge is in the neighborhood of $500,000,000, and taking into consideration the development of the resources of the nation which have taken place since 1865, it ought to be possible to liquidate the new debt quite as easily as it was to dispose of the Civil War debt.

The United States wisely undertook to raise about twenty per cent of the war-time expenses by taxation, a proportion which assures a solid foundation for the loans, and does not hamper the social output or interfere with desirable consumption.

The main sources of revenue from taxation were the property tax, which is in large part a tax on real estate, the inheritance tax, the income tax, the excess profits tax, and indirect taxation by tariffs and excises. The main increases in taxes were naturally in the income tax and the tax on excess profits. The United States was extremely fortunate that when the war broke out she had on hand ready for immediate application the machinery of the income tax, which also was valuable for the tax on excess profits. If that machinery had to be set up from the beginning, it would have taken many months, perhaps several years before it would have been in such good working order that anything like the revenue produced could have been obtained from it.

The greatest good fortune, however, was the preparedness of the United States to issue great government loans. The establishing of the Federal Reserve System, co-ordinating the banking resources of the country and stabilizing the currency made it possible to finance the present war with comparative ease. The method used is briefly as follows: In anticipation of the receipt of the proceeds of Liberty loans the Treasury issued certificates of indebtedness. These certificates were apportioned to the Twelve Federal Reserve Districts, and divided among the banks in each district according to their respective standing. When the time seemed suitable for the issuance of a permanent loan, the advances of the banks were repaid from the proceeds of such loans. When it was thought wise to finance a Liberty loan, the Secretary of the Treasury notified the governors of the twelve Federal Reserve Banks. These governors each appointed a committee, made up of men of prominence and wide activity, and the country was portioned out, and in each large federal reserve center two or three men, experts but unknown to the public undertook to sell in four weeks billions of dollars in bonds. And every city, town or village had its Liberty Loan committee, acting under the direction of these experts.

There were five loans issued under such conditions; in each case a large portion of the loan had already been used by the government through certificates of indebtedness. The reports of the Treasury Department show that certificates for $868,205,000 were issued in anticipation of the first loan; $2,320,293,000 in anticipation of the second loan; $3,012,085,500 in anticipation of the third loan; $4,659,820,000 in anticipation of the fourth loan, and about five billion in anticipation of the Victory loan. In addition to the certificates based upon the Liberty loan, certificates for about four millions of dollars were issued in anticipation of the payment of taxes. The major part of these certificates bears interest at four and one-half per cent.



Where the Army Dollar Went

Another class of certificates has been issued in anticipation of the revenue from internal revenue taxes, and to tide over special emergencies. All of these certificates of indebtedness have been placed directly with the banks, and all subsequent transactions have been between the banks and their clients.

The war debt includes besides these certificates of indebtedness, most of which have already been automatically retired, Liberty bonds, Victory Liberty notes, and War Savings Certificates.

There have been five issues of Liberty bonds. The subscription for the first issue opened on May 14, 1917, there were 4,500,000 subscribers, and the total amount subscribed was $3,035,426,850. The bonds bore interest at three and one-half per cent and were exempt from all taxation except the inheritance tax. The holder had the privilege of exchanging these bonds for bonds of any subsequent series bearing a higher rate of interest. Only $2,000,000 of this issue were alloted.

The Second Liberty Loan campaign opened October 1, 1917, and closed October 27th. The total amount offered was $3,000,000,000, bearing interest at four per cent. The amount subscribed was $4,617,532,300. The amount alloted was $3,808,716,150. There were nine million subscribers. These bonds bore interest from October 2, and were convertible to any subsequent series bearing interest at a higher rate than four per cent.

The Third Liberty Loan opened its books for subscription on April 6, 1918, and closed on May 4th. The bonds bear interest at a rate of four and one-fourth per cent. The amount offered was $3,000,000,000. The amount subscribed was $4,176,516,250, all of which was alloted. There were about eighteen million subscribers.

The Fourth Liberty Loan was opened on September 28th, 1918, the campaign closing on October 19th. The amount offered was $6,000,000,000 with interest at four and one-fourth per cent, the amount subscribed and alloted was $6,593,073,250, and there were about twenty-one million subscribers to this loan.

The Fifth Liberty Loan, known as the Victory loan, was offered on April 21, 1919, the books closing on May 10th. The amount offered was $4,500,000,000. These were called Victory Liberty notes, and bear interest at four and three-fourths per cent per annum, and mature in from three to four years. It was officially stated that this would be the last Liberty loan, and the Secretary of the Treasury said: "Although as the remaining war bills are presented further borrowing must be done, I anticipate that the requirements of the government in excess of the amount of taxes and other income can, in view of the increasing scale of expenditure, be readily financed by an issue of Treasury certificates from time to time as heretofore, which may be ultimately refunded by the use of notes or bonds, without the aid of another great popular campaign such as has characterized the Liberty loans." The campaigns for this loan lagged at the start, but in the last few days of the campaign there was a great rush of investors and the loan went over the top. Approximately fifteen million people bought Victory notes in the campaign. The total amount of the over-subscription aggregated more than $6,000,000,000.

Another popular method of borrowing was by the War Savings Certificates and Thrift Stamps. These are intended for the convenience of the small investor. These are discount certificates, that is to say, when paid at the end of the five years they have to run, the payment will include the return of the investment plus an amount which will be about four per cent per annum. The War Savings Certificates are made an obligation of the United States affixing to them War Saving Certificate stamps. There are two series of such stamps. One series with a maturity value of $5.00, matures January 1, 1923. The second series, maturing January 1, 1924, is in two denominations, one of $5, and the other of $100. The issue price of the 1923 series, was $4.15 for the month of April, and one cent additional for each subsequent month. Each War Saving Certificate has places for twenty War Savings Stamps, each having a maturity value of $5.00 in 1924, or in case of large stamps of $100 each. These stamps are payable at any Money Order Post Office at maturity, or they may be cashed prior to maturity ten days after written demand. Loose stamps are not redeemed. United States Thrift Stamps having a face value of 25 cents, bearing no interest, have also been sold. They cannot be redeemed in cash, but may be exchanged for War Savings Certificate Stamps in amounts of four dollars. The owner must pay in addition the difference between that amount and the current issue price of War Saving Certificate Stamps.

Perhaps no agency brought the war more closely to the American people than the great campaigns carried on through the country, in connection with the flotation of the five great Liberty loans. These were conducted with even greater enthusiasm than political campaigns. The whole country was thoroughly organized and every method of influencing public opinion was extensively used. Long before each campaign began the newspapers were filled with advertisements of the most attractive character. Placards of an artistic type were displayed at every point of vantage, and when the campaign itself began it was marked by parades, mass meetings, curbstone assemblies, and every possible method of educating the people.

All financial and civic agencies took an active part in these canvasses and through the big Liberty Loan committees nearly every person in the United States was solicited for contribution. Newspapers, great and small, contributed the use of their columns free. The greatest artists of the land organized to produce impressive posters. Actors, theatrical managers, photo-play producers and their stars all used their utmost endeavors to sell bonds. A definite allotment was given to every town and every district in the country, and flags of honor was sent to each community that exceeded its quota. It was the great ambition of the committees in each district to carry their district "over the top."

The working propaganda carried on in the moving picture theatres, was especially notable. Not only were appeals to patriotism flashed daily upon the screen, but effective pleas were prepared by distinguished actors and actresses working voluntarily and these plays were shown throughout the country to millions of people. Notable stars traveled the country, speaking at mass-meetings and selling millions of dollars worth of bonds. The moving pictures showed themselves to be a new power in the land in their wonderful work in influencing people to contribute. Public speakers presented the attractions of the various loans to enormous audiences. Speaking propaganda was thoroughly organized under the direction of a division of Four-Minute Men in the Department of the Committee on Public Information. Mr. William H. Ingersoll, the Director of the Four-Minute Men, organized bands of speakers in every community in the country and classes for four-minute speakers were trained in many of the colleges and universities. These aided the government in their food propaganda, and other patriotic endeavor, but they became particularly important at the time of the Liberty loans, giving four-minute speeches night after night, in practically every theatre in the country whether a photoplay or regular theatre.

Every possible method was used to render impressive the great parades and public meetings organized not only in the large cities, but in almost every smaller center of the nation. Special days were set aside by President Wilson for "the people of the United States to assemble in their respective communities and liberally pledge anew their financial support to sustain the nation's cause and to hold patriotic demonstrations in every city, town and hamlet throughout the land." In the great parades marched divisions of the mothers who sent their sons to the front, carrying service flags often with three, four or five stars for the relatives in service. Brigades of troops sent back from the trenches, or from the Alpine regiments of France, brought the war home to the people.

On the last day of the first loan the Liberty Bell at Independence Hall, Philadelphia, was rung for the first time in half a century, and other bells in all parts of the country echoed the sound.

The wonderful propaganda for the sale of the Liberty loan bonds was not only a wonderful success, but it has had educational value. It has taught to a people, coming from countries all over the globe, a love of their new fatherland. It has stimulated patriotism, it has made America a united people.

CHAPTER XXXI

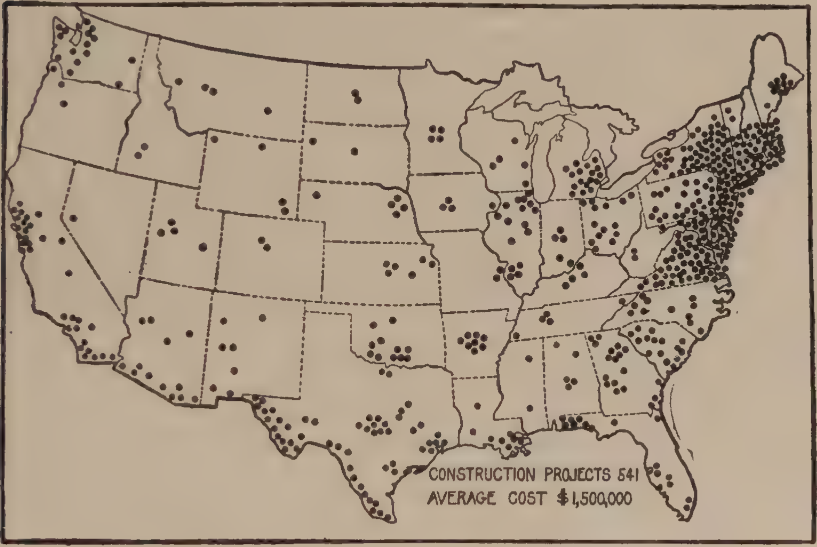
LABOR IN THE WAR

THE attitude of American Labor in the great war was eminently patriotic. Certain socialistic organizations and anarchistic organizations, such as the I. W. W., antagonized the policies of the American Government, but the great mass of labor, especially the American Federation of Labor, under the lead of Mr. Samuel Gompers, supported the war, after it was once begun, with every effort that they could make. The American Federation of Labor represents, according to Mr. Gompers, fully four million organized workers in America, and in Mr. Gompers they had a leader, wise, patriotic and aggressive.

Mr. Gompers was born in England, but came early to the United States and worked for twenty-six years at his trade as a cigar maker. He has been for many years the President of the American Federation of Labor. Before the war began, he had been a strong advocate of peace. He was, he says, "a man who has seen sixty-eight years of life, and who for more than fifty years of that life, was one of the most active pacifists in the world, belonging to all the peace organizations of America and of the world, who as a pacifist gave his assistance to the movement of labor, to the movement of the men and women of other walks of life, to maintain the peace of the world. But," he adds, "the man or the men who would not fight in defense of freedom, the men who would not fight in defense of their country, engaged in a righteous cause, are unworthy to live and enjoy the privileges of a free country."

Before America entered the war, the American Federation of Labor through their executive council and their annual conventions made various endeavors to bring about peace. In 1915 it proposed that a World's Peace Conference should be held, composed of representatives of the organized labor movements of the world. This plan fell through on account of the refusal of the labor movement of Great Britain and the federations of trade unions of Germany to give it their approval. It then suggested that a general peace conference should be held to determine terms and conditions of peace at the close of the war, so that representatives of wage earners could be seated with other representatives of the nations in general conferences connected with the formulation of peace terms. And in substance it also suggested the organization of a league of nations to promote peace.

When America entered the war, the Federation of Labor realized at once the importance to them of the struggle to save democracy. By March 12th when it had become plain that America would fight, the Executive Council of the Federation approved a proposition submitted to them by Mr. Gompers that a conference should be held to consider the position of American labor toward the war situation. Invitations were sent to representatives of all national organizations, both those affiliated with the Federation and those not affiliated, asking them to meet in Washington, in the Federation of Labor Building on March 12th. There were present at that conference 148 representatives of seventy-nine affiliated



Construction Projects of the Army in the United States organizations, five unaffiliated organizations and five departments of the Federation of Labor in addition to the members of the Executive Council.

The full list of those present follows:

Executive Council: President, Samuel Gompers; Secretary, Frank Morrison; Treasurer, John B. Lennon; First Vice-President, James Duncan; Second Vice-President, James O'Connell; Third Vice-President, Joseph F. Valentine; Fourth Vice-President, John R. Alpine; Fifth Vice-President, H. B. Perham; Sixth Vice-President, Frank Duffy; Seventh Vice-President, William Green; Eighth Vice-President, William D. Mahon.
Asbestos Workers: Joseph A. Mullaney, V. C. McLelland.
Bakery and Confectionery: A. A. Myrup, Charles F. Hohmann.
Bill Posters and Billers: P. F. Murphy, William McCarthy.
Blacksmiths: G. C. Van Dornes.
Boilermakers: J. A. Franklin, Charles F. Scott, A. E. Barksdale.
Bookbinders: A. P. Sovey.
Boot and Shoe Workers: C. L. Baine, Collis Lovely.
Brewery Workmen: A. J. Kugler, Joseph Obergell, John Sullivan.
Bricklayers: Thomas R. Preece.
Bridge and Structural Iron Workers: Joseph E. McClory, Edward Ryan.
Carmen, Railway: M. F. Ryan, J. F. McCreery, J. S. Wilds, R. E. Hamilton.
Carpenters, United Brotherhood: Frank Duffy.
Carriage, Wagon, Automobile Workers: William A. Logan.
Cigarmakers: G. W. Perkins, Samuel Gompers.
Clerks, Post Office: Thomas F. Flaherty.
Clerks, Railway: James J. Forrester.
Clerks, Railway Postal: Carl Freeman.
Clerks, Retail: E. E. Baker.
Coopers: Andrew C. Hughes.
Diamond Workers: Andries Meyer.
Electrical Workers: F. J. McNulty, William A. Hogan, W. S. Godshall, J. J. Purcell, George L. Kelly, J. S. McDonagh.
Elevator Constructors: Frank Feeney, Frank Schneider.
Engravers, Photo: Matthew Woll.
Firemen: Timothy Healy, Newton A. James.
Fur Workers: A. W. Miller.
Garment Workers, United: Thomas A. Rickert, B. A. Larger, Abe Berkson.
Glass Bottle Blowers: John A. Voll, Harry Jenkins, James Maloney.
Granite Cutters: James Duncan.
Hat and Cap Makers: M. Zuckerman, Max Zaritsky.
Hatters: John W. Sculley, Martin Lawlor.
Hodcarriers: D. D'Alessandro.
Horseshoers: Hubert S. Marshall, John F. Kane.

Hotel and Restaurant Employees: Edward Flore.
Iron, Tin and Steel Workers: John Williams, M. F. Tighe.
Jewelry Workers: Julius Birnbaum, Abraham Greenstein.
Lace Operatives: David L. Gould.
Lathers, Wood, Wire: William J. McSorley.
Laundry Workers: Harry L. Morrison.
Leather Workers on Horse Goods: W. E. Bryan.
Longshoremen: Anthony J. Chlopek, William F. Dempsey.
Machinists: William H. Johnston, Fred Hewitt, E. L. Tucker, A. E. Holder.
Maintenance of Way Employees: Allan E. Barker, Henry Irwin.
Masters, Mates and Pilots: J. H. Pruett, Ulster Davis, Alfred B. Devlin, Robert S. Lavender.
Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen: Homer D. Call.
Metal Polishers: W. W. Britton.
Metal Workers, Sheet: John J. Hynes, O. E. Hoard, Harry H. Stewart.
Mine Workers, United: William Green, Van Bittner, William Diamond.
Molders, Iron: John P. Frey.
Musicians: Joseph N. Weber, J. E. Birdsell.
Painters: George F. Hedrick, J. C. Skemp.
Pattern Makers: James Wilson, James L. Gernon, A. J. Berres.
Paving Cutters: Carl Bergstrom.
Plasterers, Operative: E. J. McGivern, Charles Smith.
Plate Printers: James E. Goodyear, William G. Holder.
Plumbers: John R. Alpine, William J. Spencer, William J. Tracy.
Potters, Operative: Edward Menge, Frank H. Hutchins, John T. Wood, S. M. Moore.
Print Cutters: Ralph T. Holman.
Printing Pressmen: Joseph C. Orr, Henry J. Hardy.
Quarry Workers: Fred W. Suitor.
Railway Employees, Street and Electric: W. D. Mahon.
Roofers, Composition: J. T. Hurley.
Seaman's Union: Andrew Furuseth, V. A. Olander.
Signalmen, Railroad: A. E. Adams.
Steel Plate Transferrers: Benjamin Goldsworthy.
Stage Employees, Theatrical: Charles C. Shay.
Steam Shovel and Dredgement: T. J. Brady.
Stereotypers and Electrotypers: James S. Briggs.
Stonecutters: Samuel Griggs, Walter W. Drayer.
Switchmen: S. E. Heberling.
Tailors: Thomas Sweeney.
Teachers: Charles B. Stillman.
Teamsters: Daniel J. Tobin, H. Jennings.
Textile Workers: John Golden.
Tobacco Workers: A. McAndrew, E. Lewis Evans.
Tunnel and Subway Constructors: Michael J. Carraher, Tito Pacelli.
Upholsterers: James H. Hatch, John Hanley.

Weavers, American Wire: John F. Curley.
White Rats, Actors: Jack Hayden.

UNAFFILIATED ORGANIZATIONS

Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen: W. S. Carter.
Railway Trainmen: W. G. Lee.
Railway Conductors: L. E. Sheppard.
Locomotive Engineers: W. S. Stone.
National Window Glass Workers: Herbert Thomas.

A. F. OF L. DEPARTMENT

Building Trades Department: John Donlin.
Metal Trades Department: A. J. Berres.
Mining Department: James Lord.
Railroad Employees Department: A. O. Wharton.
Union Label Trades Department: J. W. Hays.

The members of this conference were representative Americans, each anxious for the improvement of the condition of the wage earners of their craft, but recognizing that such improvement could only come under a democratic form of government, and that the triumph of German autocracy would be a death-blow to their hopes. They recognized the power and the importance of labor in war as in peace. They discussed their duty, and they decided. Their declaration was full of patriotism. It reads in parts as follows:

> We speak for hundreds of Americans. We are not a sect, we are not a party. We represent the organizations held together by the pressure of our common need. We represent the part of the nation closest to the fundamentals of life. Those we represent wield the nation's tools, and grapple with the forces that are brought under control in our material civilization. . . . In the struggle between the forces of democracy and special privilege for just and historic reasons the masses of the people necessarily represent the ideals and the institutions of democracy. . . . Industrial justice is the right of those living within our country, but with this right there is associated obligation. In war time obligation takes the form of service in defense of the Republic against enemies. We, the officers of the National Trade Union of America, in national conference assembled in the capitol of our nation, hereby pledge ourselves in peace or in war, in stress or in storm, to stand unreservedly by the standards of liberty and the safety and preservation of the institutions and ideals of our republic.

On May 15th, Mr. Gompers, as chairman of the Labor Committee, of the Council of National Defense, invited many

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CAPTURED GERMAN SUBMARINE IN LIBERTY LOAN CAMPAIGN

A novel and appropriate use of this German sea snake.

of America's greatest industrial magnates, to discuss methods of co-operation between employers and workmen. Among leaders of capital who were present were John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Emerson McMillan, Daniel Guggenheim, Theodore Marburg and Colgate Hoyt. Pledges of co-operation were agreed upon, and pledges received from men representing great interests who were not present. After the conference its members were received at the White House by the President of the United States. The labor leaders also conferred with British labor representatives, and learned the methods of co-operation between employers and workers in England.

From that time on organized labor in the United States was in substantial accord with the war plans of the government. In the annual report of the Executive Council of November 12, 1917, it is declared: "Since the war began the American labor movement has secured the best agreements with the government that have been secured in any warring country. The agreements established a new period in the industrial world, a period in which the government has sanctioned standards based upon principles of human welfare, and has substituted these standards for the old system under which profits were paramount."

The necessity that those employed in industry should be shifted from one location to another was also discussed in this report. The proposition had been proposed in the beginning, but the report reads: "In the light of the experience gleaned in foreign countries now engaged in war, it appears that the shifting of workers has not only been necessary but vital to the carrying on of the great conflict . . . The primary agency necessary for dealing with proper adjustment of workers is a national Employment Bureau equipped to give workers information of employment opportunities, and employers information of available and suitable workers. It is one of the necessary and essential activities of the war that certain industries on occasions are called upon to materially increase production, and in this event some plan must be inaugurated to meet the needs of the government."

During the year a plan for an International Conference of Socialists to meet at Stockholm to discuss the basis of peace came before the American Federation of Labor. Mr. Gompers replied in answer to the inquiry from representatives of English and French labor organizations, that the American Federation of Labor would not send representatives. He later attacked the People's Council of America, which declared it represented American labor in an effort to foster a peace movement. He said, "It has been the constant claim of the People's Council that it represented labor. Nothing could be further from the truth. It is true there are some few local unions affiliated with the People's Council, but when it is considered that there are about 15,000 local unions in America, it will be seen that even the half hundred that may be affiliated with the People's Council is an insignificant number. The American labor movement as a body is loyal to America and steadfast in its determination to help secure victory for this country and the cause of democracy. It has nothing to do with those Anti-American pro-Kaiserist activities of which the People's Council is the local order.

"The American Federation of Labor is the organized labor movement of America. There is no other. Its position is clear. It is loyal. It was so expressed in the manifesto issued at the Washington Conference on March 12th, and there has been no change since. No other organization can express the wishes of the American labor movement, and the pretenses of the so-called People's Council in that direction are nothing short of ridiculous. The People's Council is an organization that is for the most part evidently alien in membership, so far as it has membership, led by men who have never been known as labor men, though some of them have made frantic claims to having been labor men for various reasons. Money evidently is plentiful and the work of undoing America proceeds merrily. American labor must denounce any such movement and any such foreign propaganda. I suggest that the methods of the organization are entirely German in character, and that undoubtedly the Kaiser is greatly cheered by the reports he gets of the People's Council's activities. We shall do our best to put an end to operations of that kind."

Not all socialists, by any means, were opposed to the war policies of the United States. On September 6, 1917, the American Alliance for Labor and Democracy met at Minneapolis and was presided over by Mr. Gompers. It adopted resolutions in which it described itself as "We, the men and women of the Trade Union and Socialist movements of America organize into the American Alliance for Labor and Democracy." It strongly approved of the aim set forth by the government as entirely consistent with the great ideals of democracy and internationalism. It condemned the efforts of pacifists who were claiming to represent labor organizations, and declared that a peace could not be made with the von Hohenzollerns but only with a democratized Germany.

The agreements made between organized labor and the government of the United States did not prevent occasional labor difficulties. In February, 1918, when the Shipping Board in its effort to hasten the production of ships from the new yards which came into existence during 1917, initiated a campaign to obtain 250,000 additional shipyard workers, a strike on the part of the workingmen threatened to tie up every yard on the Atlantic coast. A demand was made for a closed shop in shipyards and a wage scale similar to that enforced on the Pacific coast. The workmen appeared to ignore their agreement that differences of this kind should be settled by the government Labor Adjustment Bureau.

This was the first serious labor trouble since the nation went to war. There had been difficulties with labor in the West in connection with the spruce lumber used in airplanes. This, however, was brought about by the I. W. W. who had never made agreements with the government but had been continually antagonistic. The shipyard strike was a strike of workers belonging to the unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.

The trouble was ended through President Wilson who addressed a telegram to Mr. William D. Hutcheson, general president of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Jointers of America, in which he said:

> I feel it to be my duty to call your attention to the fact that the strike of carpenters in the shipyards is a marked and painful contrast to the action of labor in other trades and places. All the other unions

engaged in this indispensable work have agreed to abide by the decision of the Shipbuilding Wage Adjustment Board. If you do not act upon this principle, you are undoubtedly giving aid and comfort to the enemy, whatever may be your own conscious purpose.

Mr. Hutcheson promptly replied that he was attempting to induce the striking carpenters and jointers to return to work. Conferences were held, and the difficulties finally adjusted.

Strikes like this were not common. On the whole the workman did his work faithfully and well. The government paid high wages, but this was made necessary by the high cost of living. The immense production of war munitions and other necessary supplies was one of the miracles of the war.

INTERNATIONAL LABOR COMMISSION

In accordance with the suggestions of the Federation of Labor an International Labor Commission was organized in connection with the Peace Conference after the armistice. It was appointed on January 18, 1919, and consisted of fifteen members representing the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium, Cuba, Poland and Czecho-Slovakia. It made its final report to the Peace Conference on April 11th. Mr. Gompers presided as general chairman over the meetings.

The report suggested a permanent organization to remedy industrial evils and injustices; and that an International Labor Conference should meet at least once a year, and should consist of four representatives from each state, including two representing the government, one the employers and one the employees. The first meeting was recommended for October, 1919, in Washington. Various labor principles were proposed for the adoption of the International Labor Conference. These included the principle of the eight-hour day and the forty-eight hour week, a minimum age for the employment of children and other similar measures. It suggested that an International Labor Office should be established at the seat of the League of Nations.

The recommendations of this commission were made an integral part of the peace treaty, and President Wilson cabled his approval in the following words:

> The Labor program which the Conference of Peace has adopted as a part of the Treaty of Peace constitutes one of the most important achievements of the new day, in which the interests of labor are to be systematically and intelligently safeguarded and promoted. Amid the multitude of other interests this great step forward is apt to be overlooked, and yet no other single thing that has been done will help more to stabilize conditions of labor throughout the world and ultimately relieve the unhappy conditions which in so many places have prevailed. Personally, I regard this as one of the most gratifying achievements of the conference.

CHAPTER XXXII

AMERICAN HEROES

HEROES were in every division of the American troops fighting in France. Decorations were far too few to do justice to those whose heroisms wrested strong positions from the enemy, rescued wounded comrades and, by the flaming torch of their example, fired others to deeds of glorious sacrifice. Only a fraction of these heroisms could be recognized by citations and decorations.

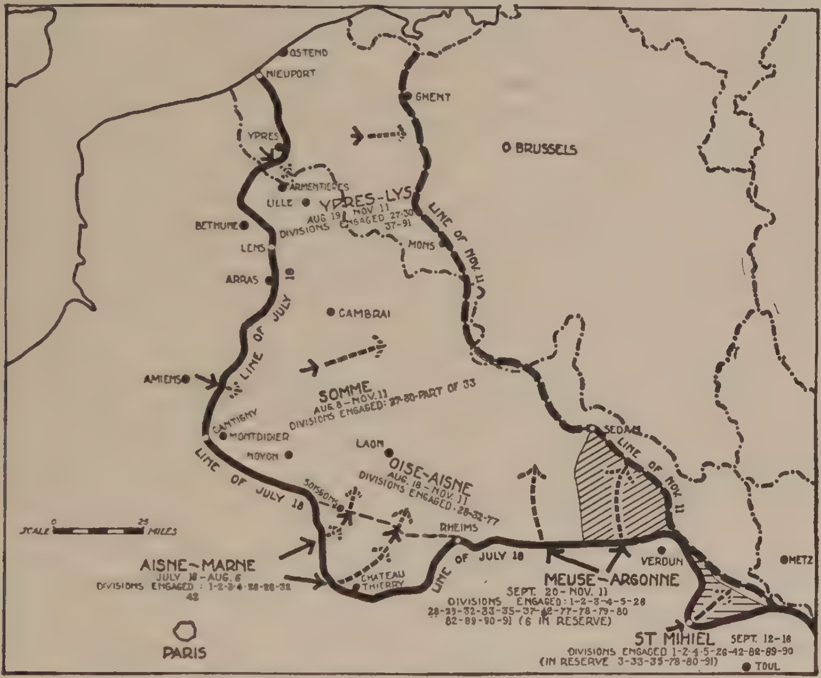
The highest form of recognition established by the United States Government is the Congressional Medal of Honor. Seventy-eight of these prized decorations were awarded among the 1,200,000 soldiers who engaged in battles against the Teutonic Allies.

Of the seventy-eight who won the honor, which is given only to those who achieve an act of supreme courage, or as it is officially expressed in general orders, to those who in action have fought with "conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity above and beyond the call of duty," seventy-six were Americans, one was an Englishman, and one was a Norwegian. For every 15,400 soldiers who were in action one received the Medal of Honor.

The table that follows gives the statistical story of the Medal of Honor by divisions:

Thirtieth	12
Eighty-ninth	9
Thirty-third	8
Second	7
Twenty-seventh	6
Seventy-seventh	6
Ninety-first	4
Twenty-ninth	3
First	2
Third	2
Fifth	2
Twenty-sixth	2
Thirty-fifth	2
Thirty-sixth	2
Forty-second	2
Eighty-second	2
Twenty-eighth	1
Thirty-first	1
Seventy-eighth	1
Ninety-third	1
Total	75

Fifty-seven of the number were enlisted men and twenty-one were officers. The division which made the best showing in the awards was the 30th, the National Guard organization of the Carolinas and Tennessee. Second honors go to the 89th Division, which is the selective draft unit of western Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado, South Dakota, and New Mexico; the third largest is in the 33d, or National Guard, Division of Illinois. Fourth honors go to the famous 2d Division of regulars, which includes the marines, while fifth place is shared by the two New York divisions, the 27th and 77th.



American Participation in the Allied Offensives of 1918

The other awards were two to soldiers of the Tank Corps and one to Lieutenant Frank Luke, Jr., an aviator.

The table by states shows that New York leads with nine, Illinois is second with seven, and California, Missouri, New Jersey, South Carolina, and Tennessee share third honors with six each. Thirty-nine of the medals went to men of the

National Guard divisions, twenty-three to soldiers of the selective draft organizations, thirteen to regular army and marine units, two to the Tank Corps, and one to the Air Service.

This table is as follows:

New York	9
Illinois	7
California	6
Missouri	6
New Jersey	6
South Carolina	6
Tennessee	6
Colorado	4
Massachusetts	4
Oklahoma	3
Arizona	2
Idaho	2
Kentucky	2
Minnesota	2
Virginia	2
Alabama	1
Iowa	1
Kansas	1
Michigan	1
North Carolina	1
Oregon	1
Texas	1
Washington	1
Wisconsin	1
	—
Total	76
England	1
Norway	1
	—
Grand total	78

The names of the soldiers, alphabetically arranged, to whom the Medal of Honor was awarded, follow:

ADKINSON, JOSEPH B., *Sergeant*, Company C, 119th Infantry, 30th Division, Atoka, Tenn.—Bellicourt, France, September 29, 1918. When murderous machine-gun fire at a range of fifty yards had made it impossible for his platoon to advance, and had caused the platoon to take cover, Sergeant Adkinson alone, with the greatest intrepidity, rushed across the fifty yards of open ground directly into the face of the hostile machine gun, kicked the gun from the parapet, into the enemy trench, and at the point of the bayonet captured the three men manning the gun. The gallantry and quick decision of this soldier enabled the platoon to resume its advance.

ALLEX, JAKE, *Corporal*, Company H, 131st Infantry, 33d Division, Chicago.—At Chipilly Ridge, France, August 9, 1918. At a critical point in the action, when all the officers with his platoon had become casualties, Corporal Allex took command of the platoon and led it forward until the advance was stopped by fire from a machine-gun nest. He then advanced alone for about thirty yards in the face of intense fire and attacked the nest. With his bayonet he killed five of the enemy, and when it was broken used the butt end of his rifle, capturing fifteen prisoners.

ALLWORTH, EDWARD S., *Captain*, 60th Infantry, 5th Division, Crawford, Wash.—Cléry-le-Petit, France, November 5, 1918. While his company was crossing the Meuse river and canal at a bridge-head opposite Cléry-le-Petit, the bridge over the canal was destroyed by shell-fire and Captain Allworth's command became separated, part of it being on the east bank of the canal and the remainder on the west bank. Seeing his advance units making slow headway up the steep slope ahead, this officer mounted the canal bank and called for his men to follow. Plunging in, he swam across the canal under fire from the enemy, followed by his men. Inspiring his men by his example of gallantry, he led them up the slope, joining his hard-pressed platoons in front. By his personal leadership he forced the enemy back for more than a kilometer, overcoming machine-gun nests and capturing a hundred prisoners, whose number exceeded that of the men in his command. The exceptional courage and leadership displayed by Captain Allworth made possible the re-establishment of a bridge-head over the canal and the successful advance of other troops.

ANDERSON, JOHANNES S., *Sergeant*, Company B, 132d Infantry, 33d Division, Chicago, Ill.—Consenvoye, France, October 8, 1918. While his company was being held up by intense artillery and machine-gun fire, Sergeant Anderson, without aid, voluntarily left the company and worked his way to the rear of the nest that was offering the most stubborn resistance. His advance was made through an open area and under constant hostile fire, but the mission was successfully accomplished, and he not only silenced the gun and captured it, but also brought back with him twenty-three prisoners.

BARGER, CHARLES D., *Private, First Class*, Company L, 354th Infantry, 89th Division, Stotts City, Mo.—Bois de Bantheville, France, October 31, 1918. Learning that two daylight patrols had been caught out in "No Man's Land" and were unable to return, Private Barger and another stretcher bearer, upon their own initiative, made two trips five hundred yards beyond our lines, under constant machine-gun fire and rescued two wounded officers.

Barkeley, David B., *Private,* Company A, 356th Infantry, 89th Division, San Antonio, Texas.—Pouilly, France, November 9, 1918. When information was desired as to the enemy's position on the opposite side of the River Meuse, Private Barkeley, with another soldier, volunteered without hesitation and swam the river to reconnoitre the exact location. He succeeded in reaching the opposite bank, despite the evident determination of the enemy to prevent a crossing. Having obtained his information, he again entered the water for his return, but before his goal was reached he was seized with cramps and drowned.

Barkley, John L., *Private, First Class,* Company K, 4th Infantry, 3d Division, Blairstown, Mo.—Cunel, France, October 7, 1918. Private Barkley, who was stationed in an observation post half a kilometer from the German line, on his own initiative repaired a captured enemy machine gun and mounted it in a disabled French tank near his post. Shortly afterward, when the enemy launched a counter-attack against our forces, Private Barkley got into the tank, waited under the hostile barrage until the enemy line was abreast of him, and then opened fire, completely breaking up the counter-attack and killing and wounding a large number of the enemy. Five minutes later an enemy 77-millimeter gun opened fire on the tank point blank. One shell struck the driver wheel of the tank, but this soldier nevertheless remained in the tank, and after the barrage ceased broke up a second enemy counter-attack, thereby enabling our forces to gain and hold Hill 253.

Bart, Frank J., *Private,* Company C, 9th Infantry, 2d Division, Newark, N. J.—Médéah Farm, France, October 3, 1918. Private Bart, being on duty as a company runner, when the advance was held up by machine-gun fire voluntarily picked up an automatic rifle, ran out ahead of the line, and silenced a hostile machine-gun nest, killing the German gunners. The advance then continued, and, when it was again hindered shortly afterward by another machine-gun nest, this courageous soldier repeated his bold exploit by putting the second machine gun out of action.

Blackwell, Robert L., *Private*, 119th Infantry, 30th Division, Hurdles Mills, N. C.—Saint Souplet, France, October 11, 1918. When his platoon was almost surrounded by the enemy and his platoon commander asked for volunteers to carry a message calling for reinforcements, Private Blackwell volunteered for this mission, well knowing the extreme danger connected with it. In attempting to get through the heavy shell and machine-gun fire this gallant soldier was killed.

Call, Donald M., *Second Lieutenant*, Tank Corps, Larchmont, N. Y.—Varennes, France, September 26, 1918. During an operation against enemy machine-gun nests west of Varennes, Lieutenant Call, then corporal, was in a tank with an officer, when half of the turret was knocked off by a direct artillery hit. Choked by gas from the high-explosive shell, he left the tank and took cover in a shell hole thirty yards away. Seeing that the officer did not follow, and thinking that he might be alive, Corporal Call returned to the tank under intense machine-gun and shell fire and carried the officer over a mile under machine-gun and sniper fire to safety.

Chiles, Marcellus H., *Captain*, 356th Infantry, 89th Division, Denver, Col.—Le Champy-Bas, France, November 3, 1918. When his battalion, of which he had just taken command, was halted by machine-gun fire from the front and left flank he picked up the rifle of a dead soldier and, calling on his men to follow, led the advance across a stream, waist deep, in the face of the machine-gun fire. Upon reaching the opposite bank this gallant officer was seriously wounded in the abdomen by a sniper, but before permitting himself to be evacuated he made complete arrangements for turning over his command to the next senior officer; and under the inspiration of his fearless leadership his battalion reached its objective. Captain Chiles died shortly after reaching the hospital.

Colyer, Wilbur E., *Sergeant*, Company A, 1st Engineers, 1st Division, Ozone Park, L. I.—Verdun, France, October 9,

1918. Volunteering with two other soldiers to locate machine-gun nests, Sergeant Colyer advanced on the hostile positions to a point where he was half surrounded by the nests, which were in ambush. He killed the gunner of one gun with a captured German grenade and then turned this gun on the other nests, silencing all of them before he returned to his platoon. He was later killed in action.

Costin, Henry G., *Private*, Company H, 115th Infantry, 29th Division, Cape Charles, Va.—Bois de Consenvoye, France, October 8, 1918. When the advance of his platoon had been held up by machine-gun fire and a request was made for an automatic rifle team to charge the nest, Private Costin was the first to volunteer. Advancing with his team, under terrific fire of enemy artillery, machine guns, and trench mortars, he continued after all his comrades had become casualties, and he himself had been seriously wounded. He operated his rifle until he collapsed. His act resulted in the capture of about one hundred prisoners and several machine guns. He succumbed from the effects of his wounds shortly after the accomplishment of his heroic deed.

Cukela, Louis, *First Lieutenant*, 5th Regiment Marines, 2d Division, Minneapolis, Minn.—Villers-Cotterets, France, July 18, 1918. When his company, advancing through a wood, met with strong resistance from an enemy strong point, Lieutenant Cukela (then sergeant) crawled out from the flank and made his way toward the German lines in the face of heavy fire, disregarding the warnings of his comrades. He succeeded in getting behind the enemy position and rushed a machine-gun emplacement, killing or driving off the crew with his bayonet. With German hand grenades he then bombed out the remaining portion of the strong point, capturing four men and two damaged machine guns.

Dilboy, George, *Private, First Class*, Company H, 103d Infantry, 26th Division, Boston, Mass.—Belleau, France, July 18, 1918. After his platoon had gained its objective along a railroad embankment, Private Dilboy, accompanying his platoon leader to reconnoitre the ground beyond, was suddenly fired upon by an enemy machine gun from one hundred yards. From a standing position on the railroad track, fully exposed to view, he opened fire at once, but, failing to silence the gun, rushed forward with his bayonet fixed through a wheat field toward the gun emplacement, falling within twenty-five yards of the gun with his right leg nearly severed above the knee and with several bullet holes in his body. With undaunted courage he continued to fire into the emplacement from a prone position, killing two of the enemy and dispersing the rest of the crew.

DOZIER, JAMES C., *First Lieutenant*, Company G, 118th Infantry, 30th Division, Rock Hill, S. C.—Montbrehain, France, October 8, 1918. In command of two platoons, Lieutenant Dozier was painfully wounded in the shoulder early in the attack, but he continued to lead his men, displaying the highest bravery and skill. When his command was held up by heavy machine-gun fire he disposed his men in the best cover available and with a soldier continued forward to attack a machine-gun nest. Creeping up to the position in the face of intense fire, he killed the entire crew with hand grenades and his pistol and a little later captured a number of Germans who had taken refuge in a dugout nearby.

EGGERS, ALAN LOUIS, *Sergeant*, M. G. Company, 107th Infantry, 27th Division, Summit, N. J.—Le Catelet, France, September 29, 1918. Becoming separated from their platoon by a smoke barrage, Sergeant Eggers, Sergeant John C. Latham, and Corporal Thomas E. O'Shea took cover in a shell hole well within the enemy's lines. Upon hearing a call for help from an American tank which had become disabled thirty yards from them, the three soldiers left their shelter and started toward the tank, under heavy fire from German machine guns and trench mortars. In crossing the fire-swept area Corporal O'Shea was mortally wounded, but his companions, undeterred, proceeded to the tank, rescued a wounded officer, and assisted two wounded soldiers to cover in a sap of a nearby trench. Sergeant Eggers and Sergeant Latham then returned to the tank in the face of the violent fire, dismounted a Hotchkiss gun, and took it back to where the wounded men were, keeping off the enemy all day by effective use of the gun, and later bringing it, with the wounded men, back to our lines under cover of darkness.

Ellis, Michael B., *Sergeant*, Company C, 28th Infantry, 1st Division, East St. Louis, Ill.—Exermont, France, October 5, 1918. During the entire day's engagement he operated far in advance of the first wave of his company, voluntarily undertaking most dangerous missions and single-handed attacking and reducing machine-gun nests. Flanking one emplacement, he killed two of the enemy with rifle fire and captured seventeen others. Later he single-handed advanced under heavy fire and captured twenty-seven prisoners, including two officers and six machine guns, which had been holding up the advance of the company. The captured officers indicated the locations of four other machine guns, and he in turn captured these, together with their crews, at all times showing marked heroism and fearlessness.

Forrest, Arthur J., *Sergeant*, Company D, 354th Infantry, 89th Division, Hannibal, Mo.—Rémonville, France, November 1, 1918. When the advance of his company was stopped by bursts of fire from a nest of six enemy machine guns, without being discovered he worked his way single-handed to a point within fifty yards of the machine-gun nest. Charging, single-handed, he drove out the enemy in disorder, thereby protecting the advance platoon from annihilating fire, and permitting the resumption of the advance of his company.

Foster, Gary Evans, *Sergeant*, Company F, 118th Infantry, 30th Division, Inman, S. C.—Montbrehain, France, October 8, 1918. When his company was held up by violent machine-gun fire from a sunken road Sergeant Foster, with an officer, went forward to attack the hostile machine-gun nests. The officer was wounded, but Sergeant Foster continued on alone in the face of heavy fire and by effective use of hand grenades and his pistol killed several of the enemy and captured eighteen.

Funk, Jesse N., *Private, First Class*, 354th Infantry, 89th Division, Calnan, Col.—Bois de Bantheville, France, October 31, 1918. Learning that two daylight patrols had been caught out in "No Man's Land" and were unable to return, he and another stretcher bearer, upon their own initiative, made two trips five hundred yards beyond our lines, under constant machine-gun fire, and rescued two wounded officers.

FURLONG, RICHARD A., *First Lieutenant*, 353d Infantry, 89th Division, Detroit, Mich.—Bantheville, France, November 1, 1918. Immediately after the opening of the attack in the Bois de Bantheville, when his company was held up by severe machine-gun fire from the front, which killed his company commander and several soldiers, Lieutenant Furlong moved out in advance of the line with great courage and coolness, crossing an open space several hundred yards wide. Taking up a position behind the line of machine guns, he closed in on them, one at a time, killing a number of the enemy with his rifle, putting four machine-gun nests out of action, and driving twenty German prisoners into our lines.

GAFFNEY, FRANK, *Private, First Class*, 108th Infantry, 27th Division, Lockport, N. Y.—Ronssoy, France, September 29, 1918. Private Gaffney, an automatic rifleman, pushed forward alone with his gun, after all the other members of his squad had been killed, discovered several Germans placing a heavy machine gun in position. He killed the crew, captured the gun, bombed several dugouts, and, after killing four more of the enemy with his pistol, held the position until reinforcement came up, when eighty prisoners were captured.

GREGORY, EARL D., *Sergeant*, H. Q. Company, 116th Infantry, 29th Division, Chase City, Va.—Bois de Consenvoye, north of Verdun, France, October 8, 1918. With the remark "I will get them," Sergeant Gregory seized a rifle and a trench mortar shell, which he used as a hand grenade, left his detachment of the trench mortar platoon, and, advancing ahead of the infantry, captured a machine gun and three of the enemy. Advancing still further from the machine-gun nest, he captured a 7.5-centimeter mountain howitzer and, entering a dugout in the immediate vicinity, single-handed captured nineteen of the enemy.

GUMPERTZ, SYDNEY G., *First Sergeant*, Company E, 132d Infantry, 33d Division, New York City.—Bois de Forges, France, September 26, 1918. When the advancing line was held up by machine-gun fire Sergeant Gumpertz left the platoon of which he was in command and started with two other soldiers through a heavy barrage toward the machine-gun nest. His two companions soon became casualties from bursting shell, but Sergeant Gumpertz continued on alone in the face of direct fire from the machine gun, jumped into the nest and silenced the gun, capturing nine of the crew.

HALL, THOMAS LEE, *Sergeant*, Company G, 118th Infantry, 30th Division, Fort Hill, S. C.—Montbrehain, France, October 8, 1918. Having overcome two machine-gun nests under his skillful leadership, Sergeant Hall's platoon was stopped eight hundred yards from its final objective by machine-gun fire of particular intensity. Ordering his men to take cover in a sunken road, he advanced alone on the enemy machine-gun post and killed five members of the crew with his bayonet and thereby made possible the further advance of the line. While attacking another machine-gun nest later in the day this gallant soldier was mortally wounded.

HATLER, M. WALDO, *Sergeant*, Company B, 356th Infantry, 89th Division, Neosho, Mo.—Pouilly, France, November 8, 1918. When volunteers were called for to secure information as to the enemy's position on the opposite bank of the Meuse river, Sergeant Hatler was the first to offer his services for this dangerous mission. Swimming across the river, he succeeded in reaching the German lines, after another soldier who had started with him had been seized with cramps and drowned in midstream. Alone he carefully and courageously reconnoitred the enemy's positions, which were held in force, and again successfully swam the river, bringing back information of great value.

HAYS, GEORGE PRICE, *First Lieutenant*, 10th Field Artillery, 3d Division, Okarchee, Okla.—Grèves Farm, France, July 14–15, 1918. At the very outset of the unprecedented artillery bombardment by the enemy of July 14–15, 1918, his line of communication was destroyed beyond repair. Despite the hazard attached to the mission of runner, he immediately set out to establish contact with the neighboring post of command and further established liaison with two French batteries, visiting their position so frequently that he was mainly responsible for the accurate fire therefrom. While thus engaged, seven horses were shot under him and he was

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"FOR VALOR"

Lieut.-Gen. Hunter Liggett, commanding the American First Army, pins Distinguished Service Crosses upon pilots who distinguished themselves in aerial combats over the Argonne. From left to right the pilots are Capt. J. D. Estee, Capt. Edw. Rickenbacker, Capt. Sellers, Lieut. Hugh Brewster and Lieut. C. R. Olive. The insert is Sergeant Alvin C. York, 327th Inf., 82d Div., awarded the Congressional Medal and French Croix de Guerre for capturing 132 German Prisoners and their machine guns with the aid of only seventeen men.

COLD STEEL FOR THE HUNS AT ST. ETIENNE

With rifle, pistol, bayonet and fists the doughboys of the Second Division captured the town of St. Etienne early in October, 1918, forcing the Germans to fall back from before Rheims and yield positions they had held since September, 1914.

severely wounded. His activity under most severe fire was an important factor in checking the advance of the enemy.

Heriot, James D., *Corporal*, Company I, 118th Infantry, 30th Division, Providence, S. C.—Vaux-Andigny, France, October 12, 1918. Corporal Heriot, with four other soldiers, organized a combat group and attacked an enemy machine-gun nest which had been inflicting heavy casualties on his company. In the advance two of his men were killed, and because of the heavy fire from all sides the remaining two sought shelter. Unmindful of the hazard attached to his mission, Corporal Heriot, with fixed bayonet, alone charged the machine gun, making his way through the fire for a distance of thirty yards and forcing the enemy to surrender. During his exploit he received several wounds in the arm, and later in the same day, while charging another nest, he was killed.

Hill, Ralyn, *Corporal*, Company H, 129th Infantry, 33d Division, Oregon, Ill.—Dannevoux, France, October 7, 1918. Seeing a French airplane fall out of control on the enemy side of the Meuse river with its pilot injured, Corporal Hill voluntarily dashed across the foot-bridge to the side of the wounded man, and, taking him on his back, started back to his lines. During the entire exploit he was subjected to murderous fire of enemy machine guns and artillery, but he successfully accomplished his mission and brought his man to a place of safety, a distance of several hundred yards.

Hilton, Richmond H., *Sergeant*, Company H, 118th Infantry, 30th Division, Westville, S. C.—Brancourt, France, October 11, 1918. While Sergeant Hilton's company was advancing through the village of Brancourt it was held up by intense enfilading fire from a machine gun. Discovering that this fire came from a machine-gun nest among shell holes at the edge of the town, Sergeant Hilton, accompanied by a few other soldiers, but well in advance of them, pressed on toward this position, firing with his rifle until his ammunition was exhausted, and then with his pistol, killing six of the enemy and capturing ten. In the course of this daring exploit he received a wound from a bursting shell, which resulted in the loss of his arm.

Hoffman, Charles F., *Gunnery Sergeant*, 5th Regiment Marines, 2d Division, Brooklyn, N. Y.—Château-Thierry, France, June 6, 1918. Immediately after the company to which he belonged had reached its objective on Hill 142 several hostile counter-attacks were launched against the line before the new position had been consolidated. Sergeant Hoffman was attempting to organize a position on the north slope of the hill when he saw twelve of the enemy, armed with five light machine guns, crawling toward his group. Giving the alarm, he rushed the hostile detachment, bayoneted the two leaders, and forced the others to flee, abandoning their guns. His quick action, initiative, and courage drove the enemy from a position from which they could have swept the hill with machine-gun fire and forced the withdrawal of our troops.

Johnston, Harold I., *Sergeant*, Company A, 356th Infantry, 89th Division, Denver, Col.—Pouilly, France, November 9, 1918. When information was desired as to the enemy's position on the opposite side of the River Meuse, Sergeant Johnston, with another soldier, volunteered without hesitation and swam the river to reconnoitre the exact location of the enemy. He succeeded in reaching the opposite bank, despite the evident determination of the enemy to prevent a crossing. Having obtained his information, he again entered the water for his return. This was accomplished after a severe struggle, which so exhausted him that he had to be assisted from the water, after which he rendered his report of the exploit.

Karnes, James E., *Sergeant*, Company D, 117th Infantry, 30th Division, Knoxville, Tenn.—Estrées, France, October 8, 1918. During an advance his company was held up by a machine gun which was enfilading the line. Accompanied by another soldier, he advanced against this position and succeeded in reducing the nest by killing three and capturing seven of the enemy and their guns.

Kaufman, Benjamin, *First Sergeant*, Company K, 308th Infantry, 77th Division, Brooklyn, N. Y.—Forest of Argonne, France, October 4, 1918. He took out a patrol for the purpose of attacking an enemy machine gun which had checked the advance of his company. Before reaching the gun he became separated from his patrol, and a machine gun bullet shattered his right arm. Without hesitation he advanced on the gun alone, throwing grenades with his left hand and charging with an empty pistol, taking one prisoner and scattering the crew, bringing the gun and prisoner back to the first-aid station.

KATZ, PHILIP C., *Sergeant*, Company C, 363d Infantry, 91st Division, San Francisco, Cal.—Eclisfontaine, France, September 26, 1918. After his company had withdrawn for a distance of 200 yards on a line with the units on its flanks, Sergeant Katz learned that one of his comrades had been left wounded in an exposed position at the point from which the withdrawal had taken place. Voluntarily crossing an area swept by heavy machine-gun fire, he advanced to where the wounded soldier lay and carried him to a place of safety.

KOCAK, MATEJ, *Sergeant*, Company C, 5th Regiment Marines, 2d Division, Albany, N. Y.—Soissons, France, July 18, 1918. When the advance of his battalion was checked by a hidden machine-gun nest he went forward alone, unprotected by covering fire from his own men, and worked in between the German position in the face of fire from an enemy covering detachment. Locating the machine-gun nest, he rushed it, and with his bayonet drove off the crew. Shortly after this he organized twenty-five French Colonial soldiers who had become separated from their company and led them in attacking another machine-gun nest, which was also put out of action.

KELLY, JOHN JOSEPH, *Private*, 6th Regiment Marines, 2d Division, Chicago, Ill.—Blanc Mont Ridge, France, October 3, 1918. Private Kelly ran through our own barrage 100 yards in advance of the front line and attacked an enemy machine-gun nest, killing the gunner with a grenade, shooting another member of the crew with his pistol, and returned through the barrage with eight prisoners.

LATHAM, JOHN CRIDLAND, *Sergeant*, M. G. Company, 107th Infantry, 27th Division, Westmoreland, England.—Le Catelet, France, September 29, 1918. Becoming separated from their platoon by a smoke barrage, Sergeant Latham, Sergeant Alan L. Eggers, and Corporal Thomas E. O'Shea took cover in a shell hole well within the enemy's lines. Upon hearing a call for help from an American tank, which had become disabled thirty yards from them, the three soldiers left their shelter and started toward the tank under heavy fire from German machine guns and trench mortars. In crossing the fire-swept area Corporal O'Shea was mortally wounded, but his companions undeterred, proceeded to the tank, rescued a wounded officer, and assisted two wounded soldiers to cover in the sap of a nearby trench. Sergeant Latham and Sergeant Eggers then returned to the tank, in the face of the violent fire, dismounted a Hotckhiss gun, and took it back to where the wouned men were, keeping off the enemy all day by effective use of the gun and later bringing it, with the wounded men, back to our lines under cover of darkness.

Lemert, Milo, *First Sergeant*, Company H, 119th Infantry, 30th Division, Grossville, Tenn.—Bellicourt, France, September, 29, 1918. Seeing that the left flank of his company was held up, he located the enemy machine-gun emplacement which had been causing heavy casualties. In the face of heavy fire he rushed it single-handed, killing the entire crew with grenades. Continuing along the enemy trench in advance of the company, he reached another emplacement, which he also charged, silencing the gun with grenades. A third machine-gun emplacement opened upon him from the left, and, with similar skill and bravery, he destroyed this also. Later, in company with another sergeant, he attacked a fourth machine-gun nest, being killed as he reached the parapet of the emplacement. His courageous action in destroying in turn four enemy machine-gun nests prevented many casualties among his company and very materially aided in achieving the objective.

Loman, Berger, *Private*, Company H, 132d Infantry, 33d Division, Chicago.—Consenvoye, France, October 9, 1918. When his company had reached a point within 100 yards of its objective, to which it was advancing under terrific machine-gun fire, Private Loman, voluntarily and unaided, made his way forward, after all others had taken shelter from the direct fire of an enemy machine gun. He crawled to a flank position of the gun and, after killing or capturing the entire crew, turned the machine gun on the retreating enemy.

Luke, Frank, Jr., *Lieutenant*, 27th Aero Squadron, Phœnix, Ariz.—Murvaux, France, September 29, 1918. After having previously destroyed a number of enemy aircraft within seventeen days, he voluntarily started on a patrol after German observation balloons. Though pursued by eight German planes, which were protecting the enemy balloon line, he unhesitatingly attacked and shot down in flames three German balloons, being himself under heavy fire from ground batteries and the hostile planes. Severely wounded, he descended to within fifty meters of the ground, and flying at this low altitude near the town of Murvaux, opened fire upon enemy troops, killing six and wounding as many more. Forced to make a landing and surrounded on all sides by the enemy, who called upon him to surrender, he drew his automatic pistol and defended himself gallantly until he fell dead from a wound in the chest.

Mallon, George H., *Captain*, 132d Infantry, 33d Division, Kansas City, Mo.—Bois de Forges, France, September 26, 1918. Becoming separated from the balance of his company because of a fog, Captain Mallon, with nine soldiers, pushed forward and attacked nine active hostile machine guns, capturing all of them without the loss of a man. Continuing on through the woods, he led his men in attacking a battery of four 155-millimeter howitzers, which were in action, rushing the position and capturing the battery and its crew. In this encounter Captain Mallon personally attacked one of the enemy with his fists. Later, when the party came upon two more machine guns, this officer sent men to the flanks while he rushed forward directly in the face of the fire and silenced the guns, being the first one of the party to reach the nest. The exceptional gallantry and determination displayed by Captain Mallon resulted in the capture of 100 prisoners, eleven machine guns, four 155-millimeter howitzers, and one anti-aircraft gun.

Manning, Sidney E., *Corporal*, Company C, 167th Infantry, 42d Division, Flomaton, Ala.—Breuvannes, France, July 28, 1918. When his platoon commander and platoon sergeant had both become casualties soon after the beginning of an assault on strongly fortified heights overlooking the Ourcq river, Corporal Manning took command of his platoon, which was near the center of the attacking line. Though himself severely wounded, he led forward the thirty-five men remaining in the platoon, and finally succeeded in gaining a foothold on enemy position, during which time he had received more wounds and all but seven of his men had fallen. Directing the consolidation of the position, he held off a large body of the enemy only fifty yards away by fire from his automatic rifle. He declined to take cover until the line had been entirely consolidated with the line of the platoon on the flank, when he dragged himself to shelter, suffering from nine wounds in all parts of the body.

MESTROVITCH, JAMES I., *Sergeant*, Company C, 111th Infantry, 28th Division, Fresno, Cal.—Fismette, France, August 10, 1918. Seeing his company commander lying wounded thirty yards in front of the line after his company had withdrawn to a sheltered position behind a stone wall, Sergeant Mestrovitch voluntarily left cover and crawled through heavy machine-gun and shell fire to where the officer lay. He took the officer upon his back and crawled back to a place of safety, where he administered first-aid treatment, his exceptional heroism saving the officer's life.

MILES, L. WARDLAW, *Captain*, 308th Infantry, 77th Division, Princeton, N. J.—Révillon, France, September 14, 1918. Captain Miles volunteered to lead his company in a hazardous attack on a commanding trench position near the Aisne Canal, which other troops had previously attempted to take without success. His company immediately met with intense machine-gun fire, against which it had no artillery assistance, but Captain Miles preceded the first wave and assisted in cutting a passage through the enemy's wire entanglements. In so doing he was wounded five times by machine-gun bullets, both legs and one arm being fractured, whereupon he ordered himself placed on a stretcher and had himself carried forward to the enemy trench in order that he might encourage and direct his company, which by this time had suffered numerous casualties. Under the inspiration of this officer's indomitable spirit his men held the hostile position and consolidated the front line after an action lasting two hours, at the conclusion of which Captain Miles was carried to the aid station against his will.

MILLER, OSCAR F., *Major*, 361st Infantry, 91st Division, Los Angeles, Cal.—Gesnes, France, September 28, 1918. After two days of intense physical and mental strain, during which Major Miller had led his battalion in the front line of the advance, through the forest of Argonne, the enemy was met in a prepared position south of Gesnes. Though almost exhausted, he energetically reorganized his battalion and ordered an attack. Upon reaching open ground, the advancing line began to waver in the face of machine-gun fire from the front and flanks and direct artillery fire. Personally leading his command group forward between his front-line companies, Major Miller inspired his men by his personal courage, and they again pressed on toward the hostile position. As this officer led the renewed attack he was shot in the right leg, but he nevertheless staggered forward at the head of his command. Soon afterward he was again shot in the right arm, but he continued the charge, personally cheering his troops on through the heavy machine-gun fire. Just before the objective was reached he received a wound in the abdomen which forced him to the ground, but he continued to urge his men on, telling them to push on to the next ridge and leave him where he lay. He died from his wounds a few days later.

MCMURTRY, GEORGE G., *Captain*, 308th Infantry, 77th Division, New York City.—Forest d'Argonne, France, October 2 to 8, 1918. Captain McMurtry commanded a battalion which was cut off and surrounded by the enemy, and, although wounded in the knee by shrapnel on October 4th and suffering great pain, he continued throughout the entire period to encourage his officers and men with a resistless optimism that contributed largely toward preventing panic and disorder among the troops who were, without food, cut off from communication with our lines. On October 4th, during a heavy barrage, he personally directed and supervised the moving of the wounded to shelter before himself seeking shelter. On October 6th he was again wounded in the shoulder by a German grenade, but continued personally to organize and direct the defense against the German attack on the position until the attack was defeated. He continued to direct and command his troops, refusing relief, and personally led his men out of the position after assistance arrived before permitting himself to be taken to the hospital on October 8th. During this period the successful defense of the position was due largely to his efforts.

NEIBAUR, THOMAS C., *Private*, Company M, 167th Infantry, 42d Division, Sumner City, Idaho.—Landers, St. Georges, France, October 16, 1918. On the afternoon of October 16, 1918, when the Cote de Chatillon had just been gained after bitter fighting and the summit of that strong bulwark in the Kriemhilde Stellung was being organized, Private Neibaur was sent out on patrol with his automatic rifle squad to enfilade enemy machine-gun nests. As he gained the ridge he set up his automatic rifle and was directly thereafter wounded in both legs by fire from a hostile machine gun on his flank. The advance wave of the enemy troops, counter-attacking, had about gained the ridge, and, although practically cut off and surrounded, the remainder of his detachment being killed or wounded, this gallant soldier kept his automatic rifle in operation to such effect that by his own efforts and by fire from the skirmish line of his company, at least 100 yards in his rear, the attack was checked. The enemy wave being halted and lying prone, four of the enemy attacked Private Neibaur at close quarters. These he killed. He then moved along among the enemy lying on the ground about him, in the midst of the fire from his own lines, and by coolness and gallantry captured eleven prisoners at the point of his pistol and, although painfully wounded, brought them back to our lines. The counter-attack in full force was arrested, to a large extent, by the single efforts of this soldier, whose heroic exploits took place against the sky line in full view of his entire battalion.

O'SHEA, THOMAS E., *Corporal*, M. G. Company, 107th Infantry, 27th Division, Summit, N. J.—Le Catelet, France, September 29, 1918. Becoming separated from their platoon by a smoke barrage, Corporal O'Shea, with two other soldiers, took cover in a shell hole well within the enemy's lines. Upon hearing a call for help from an American tank, which had become disabled thirty yards from them, the three soldiers left their shelter and started toward the tank under heavy fire from German machine guns and trench mortars. In crossing the fire-swept area Corporal O'Shea was mortally wounded and died of his wounds shortly afterward.

Peck, Archie A., *Private*, Company A, 307th Infantry, 77th Division, Hornell, N. Y.—Argonne Forest, France, October 6, 1918. While engaged with two other soldiers on patrol duty he and his comrades were subjected to the direct fire of an enemy machine gun, at which time both his companions were wounded. Returning to his company, he obtained another soldier to accompany him to assist in bringing in the wounded men. His assistant was killed in the exploit, but he continued on, twice returning, and safely bringing in both men, being under terrific machine-gun fire during the entire journey.

Perkins, Michael J., *Private, First Class*, Company D, 101st Infantry, 26th Division, Boston, Mass.—Belleau Bois, France, October 27, 1918. He, voluntarily and alone, crawled to a German "pill box" machine-gun emplacement, from which grenades were being thrown at his platoon. Awaiting his opportunity, when the door was again opened and another grenade thrown, he threw a bomb inside, bursting the door open; and then, drawing his trench knife, rushed into the emplacement. In a hand-to-hand struggle he killed or wounded several of the occupants and captured about twenty-five prisoners, at the same time silencing seven machine guns.

Pike, Emory J., *Lieutenant-Colonel*, Division Machine Gun Officer, 82d Division, Des Moines, Iowa.—Vandières, France, September 15, 1918. Having gone forward to reconnoitre new machine-gun positions, Colonel Pike offered his assistance in reorganizing advance infantry units, which had become disorganized during a heavy artillery shelling. He succeeded in locating only about twenty men, but with these he advanced and when later joined by several infantry platoons rendered inestimable service in establishing outposts, encouraging all by his cheeriness, in spite of the extreme danger of the situation. When a shell had wounded one of the men in the outpost, Colonel Pike immediately went to his aid and was severely wounded himself, when another shell burst in the same place. While waiting to be brought to the rear, Colonel Pike continued in command, still retaining his jovial manner of encouragement, directing the reorganization until the position could be held. The entire operation was carried on under terrific bombardment, and the example of courage and devotion to duty, as set by Colonel Pike, established the highest standard of morale and confidence to all under his charge. The wounds he received were the cause of his death.

POPE, THOMAS A., *Corporal*, Company E, 131st Infantry, 33d Division, Chicago.—Hamel, France, July 4, 1918. His company was advancing behind the tanks when it was halted by hostile machine-gun fire. Going forward alone, he rushed a machine-gun nest, killed several of the crew with his bayonet, and, standing astride of his gun, held off the others until reinforcements arrived and captured them.

PRUITT, JOHN H., *Corporal*, 78th Company, 6th Regiment of Marines, 2d Division, Phœnix, Ariz.—Blanc Mont Ridge, France, October 3, 1918. Corporal Pruitt single-handed attacked two machine guns, capturing them and killing two of the enemy. He then captured forty prisoners in a dugout near by. This gallant soldier was killed soon afterward by shell fire while he was sniping at the enemy.

REGAN, PATRICK, *Second Lieutenant*, 115th Infantry, 29th Division, Los Angeles, Cal.—Bois de Consenvoye, France, October 8, 1918. While leading his platoon against a strong enemy machine-gun nest which had held up the advance of two companies, Lieutenant Regan divided his men into three groups, sending one group to either flank, and he himself attacking with an automatic rifle team from the front. Two of the team were killed outright, while Lieutenant Regan and the third man were seriously wounded, the latter unable to advance. Although severely wounded, Lieutenant Regan dashed with empty pistol into the machine-gun nest, capturing thirty Austrian gunners and four machine guns. This gallant deed permitted the companies to advance, avoiding a terrific enemy fire. Despite his wounds, he continued to lead his platoon forward until ordered to the rear by his commanding officer.

Robb, George S., *First Lieutenant*, 369th Infantry, 93d Division, Saline, Kan.—Séchault, France, September 29–30, 1918. While leading his platoon in the assault on Séchault, Lieutenant Robb was severely wounded by machine-gun fire, but rather than go to the rear for proper treatment, he remained with his platoon until ordered to the dressing station by his commanding officer. Returning within forty-five minutes, he remained on duty throughout the entire night inspecting his lines and establishing outposts. Early the next morning he was again wounded, once again displaying his remarkable devotion to duty by remaining in command of his platoon. Later the same day a bursting shell added two more wounds, the same shell killing his commanding officer and two officers of his company. He then assumed command of the company and organized its position in the trenches. Displaying wonderful courage and tenacity at the critical times, he was the only officer of his battalion who advanced beyond the town, and by clearing machine-gun and sniping posts, contributed largely to the aid of his battalion in holding their objective. His example of bravery and fortitude and his eagerness to continue with his mission despite severe wounds set before the enlisted men of his command a most wonderful standard of morale and self-sacrifice.

Roberts, Harold W., *Corporal*, Tank Corps, San Francisco, Cal.—Montrebeau Woods, France, October 4, 1918. Corporal Roberts, a tank driver, was moving his tank into a clump of bushes to afford protection to another tank which had become disabled. The tank slid into a shell hole ten feet deep, filled with water, and was immediately submerged. Knowing that only one of the two men in the tank could escape, Corporal Roberts said to the gunner, "Well, only one of us can get out, and out you go," whereupon he pushed his companion through the back door of the tank and was himself drowned.

Sampler, Samuel H., *Sergeant*, Company M, 142d Infantry, 36th Division, Mangum, Okla.—St. Etienne, France, October 8, 1918. His company having suffered severe casualties during an advance under machine-gun fire, was finally stopped. Sergeant Sampler, then a corporal, detected the position of the enemy machine guns on an elevation. Armed with German hand grenades, which he had picked up, he left the line and rushed forward in the face of heavy fire until he was near the hostile nest, where he grenaded the position. His third grenade landed among the enemy, killing two, silencing the machine guns and causing the surrender of twenty-eight Germans, whom he sent to the rear as prisoners. As a result of his act the company was immediately enabled to resume the advance.

Sandlin, Willie, *Private*, Company A, 132d Infantry, 33d Division, Hayden, Ky.—Bois de Forges, France, September 26, 1918. He showed conspicuous gallantry in action by advancing alone directly on a machine-gun nest which was holding up the line with its fire. He killed the crew with a grenade and enabled the line to advance. Later in the day he attacked alone and put out of action two other machine-gun nests, setting a splendid example of bravery and coolness to his comrades.

Sawelson, William, *Sergeant*, Company —, 312th Infantry, 78th Division, Harrison, N. J.—Grandpré, France, October 26, 1918. Hearing a wounded man in a shell hole some distance away calling for water, Sergeant Sawelson, upon his own initiative, left shelter and crawled through heavy machine-gun fire to where the man lay, giving him what water he had in his canteen. He then went back to his own shell hole, obtained more water and was returning to the wounded man when he was killed by a machine-gun bullet.

Seibert, Lloyd M., *Sergeant*, Company F, 364th Infantry, 91st Division, Salinas, Cal.—Epinonville, France, September 26, 1918. Suffering from illness, Sergeant Seibert remained with his platoon and led his men with the highest courage and leadership under heavy shell and machine-gun fire. With two other soldiers he charged a machine-gun emplacement in advance of their company, he himself killing one of the enemy with a shotgun and captured two others. In this encounter he was wounded, but he nevertheless continued in action, and when a withdrawal was ordered he returned with the last unit, assisting a wounded comrade. Later in the evening he volunteered and carried in wounded until he fainted from exhaustion.

Skinker, Alexander R., *Captain*, 138th Infantry, 35th Division, St. Louis, Mo.—Cheppy, France, September 26, 1918. Unwilling to sacrifice his men when his company was held up by terrific machine-gun fire from iron pill boxes in the Hindenburg line, Captain Skinker personally led an automatic rifleman and a carrier in an attack on the machine guns. The carrier was killed instantly, but Captain Skinker seized the ammunition and continued through an opening in the barbed wire, feeding the automatic rifle until he, too, was killed.

Slack, Clayton K., *Private*, Company E, 124th Infantry, 31st Division, Lampson, Wis.—Consenvoye, France, October 8, 1918. Observing German soldiers under cover fifty yards away on the left flank, Private Slack, upon his own initiative, rushed them with his rifle and, single-handed, captured ten prisoners and two heavy-type machine guns, thus saving his company and neighboring organizations from heavy casualties.

Smith, Frederick E., *Lieutenant-Colonel*, 308th Infantry, 77th Division, Portland, Ore.—Binarville, France, September 28, 1918. When communication from the forward regimental post of command to the battalion leading the advance had been interrupted temporarily by the infiltration of small parties of the enemy armed with machine guns, Lieutenant-Colonel Smith personally led a party of two other officers and ten soldiers, and went forward to re-establish runner posts and carry ammunition to the front line. The guide became confused and the party strayed to the left flank beyond the outposts of supporting troops, suddenly coming under fire from a group of enemy machine guns only fifty yards away. Shouting to the other members of his party to take cover, this officer, in disregard of his own danger, drew his pistol and opened fire on the German gun crew. About this time he fell, severely wounded in the side, but, regaining his footing, he continued to fire on the enemy until most of the men in his party were out of danger. Refusing first-aid treatment, he then made his way in plain view of the enemy to a hand-grenade dump and returned under continued heavy machine-gun fire for the purpose of making another attack on the enemy emplacements. As he was attempting to ascertain the exact location of the nearest nest, he again fell, mortally wounded.

TALLEY, EDWARD R., *Sergeant*, Company L, 117th Infantry, 30th Division, Russellville, Tenn.—Ponchaux, France, October 7, 1918. Undeterred by seeing several comrades killed in attempting to put a hostile machine-gun nest out of action, Sergeant Talley attacked the position single-handed. Armed only with a rifle, he rushed the nest in the face of intense enemy fire, killed or wounded at least six of the crew, and silenced the gun. When the enemy attempted to bring forward another gun and ammunition, he drove them back by effective fire from his rifle.

TURNER, HAROLD L., *Corporal*, Company F, 142d Infantry, 36th Division, Seminole, Okla.—St. Etienne, France, October 8, 1918. After his platoon had started the attack, Corporal Turner assisted in organizing a platoon consisting of the battalion scouts, runners, and a detachment of the Signal Corps. As second in command of this platoon, he fearlessly led them forward through heavy enemy fire, continually encouraging the men. Later he encountered deadly machine-gun fire which reduced the strength of his command to but four men, and these were obliged to take shelter. The enemy machine-gun emplacement, twenty-five yards distant, kept up a continual fire from four machine guns. After the fire had shifted momentarily, Corporal Turner rushed forward with fixed bayonet and charged the position alone, capturing the strong point, with a complement of fifty Germans and four machine guns. His remarkable display of courage and fearlessness was instrumental in destroying the strong point, the fire from which had blocked the advance of his company.

TURNER, WILLIAM S., *First Lieutenant*, 105th Infantry, 27th Division, Dorchester, Mass.—Ronssoy, France, September 27, 1918. He led a small group of men to the attack, under terrific artillery and machine-gun fire, after they had become separated from the rest of the company in the darkness. Single-handed he rushed an enemy machine gun, which had suddenly opened fire on his group, and killed the crew with his pistol. He then pressed forward to another machine-gun post twenty-five yards away and had killed one gunner himself by the time the remainder of his detachment arrived and put the gun out of action. With the utmost bravery he continued to lead his men over three lines of hostile trenches, cleaning up each one as they advanced, regardless of the fact that he had been wounded three times, and killed several of the enemy in hand-to-hand encounters. After his pistol ammunition was exhausted, this gallant officer seized the rifle of a dead soldier, bayoneted several members of a machine gun crew, and shot the others. Upon reaching the fourth line trench, which was his objective, Lieutenant Turner captured it with the nine men remaining in his group, and resisted a hostile counter-attack until he was finally surrounded and killed.

Van Iersal, Louis, *Sergeant*, Company M, 9th Infantry, 2d Division, Newark, N. J.—Mouzon, France, November 9, 1918. While a member of the reconnoissance patrol sent out at night to ascertain the condition of a damaged bridge, Sergeant Van Iersal volunteered to lead a party across the bridge in the face of heavy machine-gun and rifle fire from a range of only seventy-five yards. Crawling alone along the debris of the ruined bridge, he came upon a trap, which gave away and precipitated him into the water. In spite of the swift current, he succeeded in swimming across the stream and found a lodging place among the timbers on the opposite bank. Disregarding the enemy fire, he made a careful investigation of the hostile position by which the bridge was defended and then returned to the other bank of the river, reporting this valuable information to the battalion commander.

Villepigue, John C., *Corporal*, Company M, 118th Infantry, 30th Division, Camden, S. C.—Vaux-Andigny, France, October 15, 1918. Having been sent out with two other soldiers to scout through the village of Vaux-Andigny, he met with strong resistance from enemy machine-gun fire, which killed one of his men and wounded the other. Continuing his advance without aid 500 yards in advance of his platoon and in the face of enemy machine-gun and artillery fire, he encountered four of the enemy in a dugout, whom he attacked and killed with a hand grenade. Crawling forward to a point 150 yards in advance of his first encounter, he rushed a machine-gun nest, killing four and capturing six of the enemy and taking two light machine guns. After being joined by his platoon he was severely wounded in the arm.

WALKER, REIDER, *Sergeant*, Company A, 105th Infantry, 27th Division, Noretrand, Norway.—Ronssoy, France, September 27, 1918. In the face of heavy artillery and machine-gun fire, he crawled forward in a burning British tank in which some of the crew were imprisoned, and succeeded in rescuing two men. Although the tank was then burning fiercely and contained ammunition which was likely to explode at any time, this soldier immediately returned to the tank and, entering it, made a search for the other occupants, remaining until he satisfied himself that there were no more living men in the tank.

WARD, CALVIN, *Private*, Company D, 117th Infantry, 30th Division, Morristown, Tenn.—Estrées, France, October 8, 1918. During an advance Private Ward's company was held up by a machine gun, which was enfilading the line. Accompanied by a noncommissioned officer, he advanced against this post and succeeded in reducing the nest by killing three and capturing seven of the enemy and their guns.

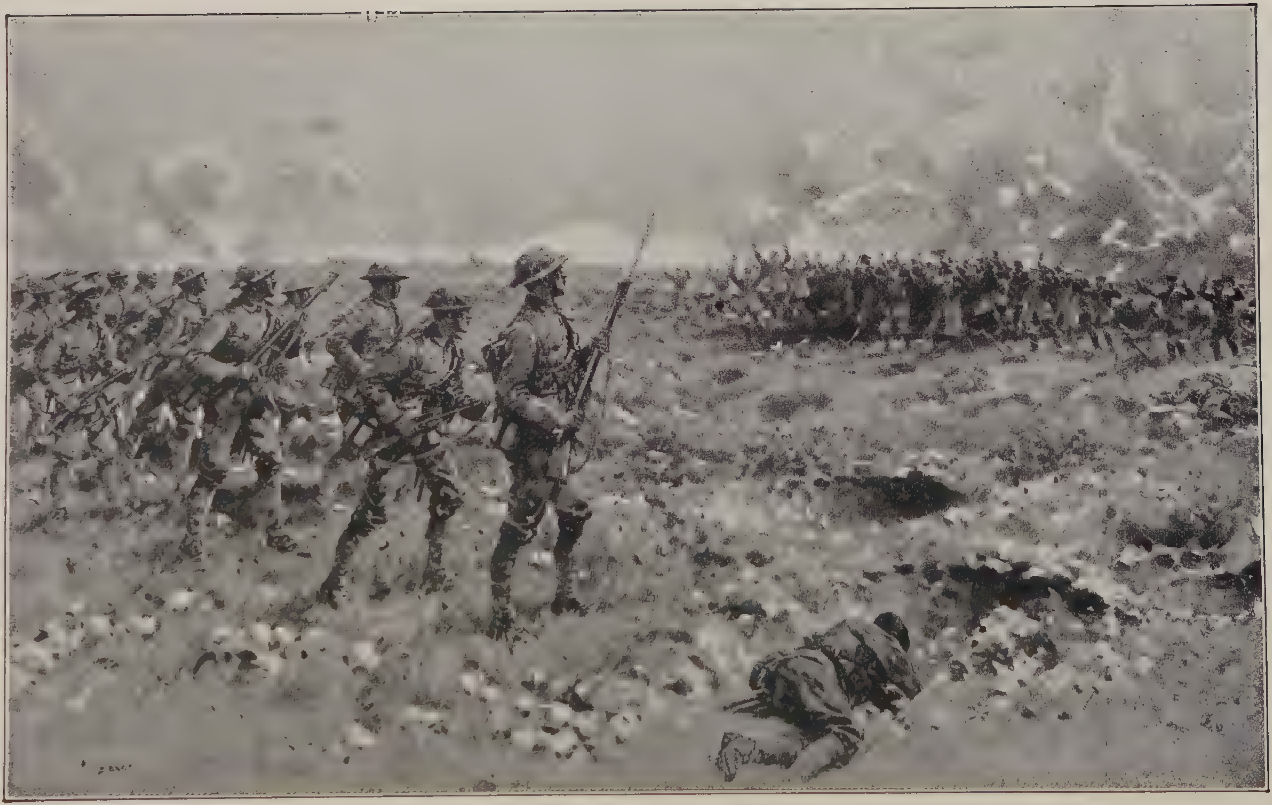
WEST, CHESTER H., *First Sergeant*, Company D, 363d Infantry, 91st Division, Idaho Falls, Idaho—Bois de Cheppy, France, September 26, 1918. While making his way through a thick fog with his automatic rifle section, his advance was halted by direct and unusual machine-gun fire from two guns. Without aid, he at once dashed through the fire and, attacking the nest, killed two of the gunners, one of whom was an officer. This prompt and decisive hand-to-hand encounter on his part enabled his company to advance further without the loss of a man.

WHITTLESEY, CHARLES W., *Lieutenant-Colonel*, 308th Infantry, 77th Division, Pittsfield, Mass.—Binarville, in the Forest d'Argonne, France, October 2–7, 1918. Although cut off for five days from the remainder of his division, Major

U. S. Official Photograph.

SPEEDING THE PARTING HUN

Battery C, 108th Field Artillery firing a salvo from the ruins of Varennes after the retreating Huns. Varennes-en-Argonne, France.



KAMERAD!

Rather than face these American bayonets the Huns are surrendering with their usual cry of "Kamerad" and their hands held up. Our men, however, are watching closely for any signs of "Kamerad pistols," small weapons held in the palm of the hand with which the Germans often opened a treacherous fire after pretending to surrender.

Whittlesey maintained his position, which he had reached under orders received for an advance, and held his command, consisting originally of 463 officers and men of the 308th Infantry and of Company K of the 307th Infantry, together, in the face of superior numbers of the enemy, during the five days. Major Whittlesey and his command were thus cut off, and no rations or other supplies reached him, in spite of determined efforts which were made by his division. On the fourth day Major Whittlesey received from the enemy a written proposition to surrender, which he treated with contempt, although he was at that time out of rations and had suffered a loss of about fifty per cent in killed and wounded of his command and was surrounded by the enemy.

WICKERSHAM, J. HUNTER, *Second Lieutenant*, 353d Infantry, 89th Division, Denver, Col.—Limey, France, September 12, 1918. Advancing with his platoon during the St. Mihiel offensive, he was severely wounded in four places by the bursting of a high-explosive shell. Before receiving any aid for himself he dressed the wounds of his orderly, who was wounded at the same time. Then he ordered and accompanied the further advance of his platoon, although weakened by the loss of blood. His right hand and arm being disabled by wounds, he continued to fire his revolver with his left hand, until, exhausted by loss of blood, he fell and died from his wounds before aid could be administered.

WOLD, NELS, *Private*, Company I, 138th Infantry, 35th Division, McIntosh, Minn.—Cheppy, France, September 26, 1918. He rendered most gallant service in aiding the advance of his company, which had been held up by machine-gun nests, advancing with one other soldier and silencing the guns, bringing with him upon his return eleven prisoners. Later the same day he jumped from a trench and rescued a comrade who was about to be shot by a German officer, killing the officer during the exploit. His actions were entirely voluntary, and it was while attempting to rush a fifth machine-gun nest that he was killed. The advance of his company was mainly due to his great courage and devotion to duty.

WOODFILL, SAMUEL, *First Lieutenant*, 60th Infantry, 5th Division, Fort Thomas, Ky.—Cunel, France, October 12,

1918. While he was leading his company against the enemy his line came under heavy machine-gun fire, which threatened to hold up the advance. Followed by two soldiers at twenty-five yards, this officer went out ahead of his first line toward a machine-gun nest and worked his way around its flank, leaving the two soldiers in front. When he got within ten yards of the gun it ceased firing, and four of the enemy appeared, three of whom were shot by Lieutenant Woodfill. The fourth, an officer, rushed at Lieutenant Woodfill, who attempted to club the officer with his rifle. After a hand-to-hand struggle. Lieutenant Woodfill killed the officer with his pistol. His company thereupon continued to advance until shortly afterward another machine-gun nest was encountered. Calling his men to follow, Lieutenant Woodfill rushed ahead of his line in the face of heavy fire from the nest, and when several of the enemy appeared above the nest he shot them, capturing three other members of the crew and silencing the gun. A few minutes later this officer for the third time demonstrated conspicuous daring by charging another machine-gun position, killing five men in one machine-gun pit with his rifle. He then drew his revolver and started to jump into the pit, when two other gunners only a few yards away turned their gun on him. Failing to kill them with his revolver, he grabbed a pick near by and killed both of them. Inspired by the exceptional courage displayed by this officer, his men pressed on to their objective under severe shell and machine-gun fire.

YORK, ALVIN C., *Sergeant*, Company G, 328th Infantry, 82d Division, Pall Mall, Tenn.—Châtel-Chéhéry, France, October 8, 1918. After his platoon had suffered heavy casualties and three other noncommissioned officers had become casualties, Corporal York assumed command. Fearlessly leading seven men, he charged, with great daring, a machine-gun nest which was pouring deadly and incessant fire upon his platoon. In this heroic feat the machine-gun nest was taken, together with four officers and 128 men and several guns.

In the case of all posthumous awards the Medal was presented in the name of the government to the soldier's nearest surviving blood relative.

THE VICTORIA CROSS

Six Americans out of 12,000 who served with the Canadian Army, were awarded the Victoria Cross, according to the final list of honors completed by the British War Records office. The records show that more Americans, in proportion to the number in the Canadian forces, won that coveted decoration than did Canadians or British.

Two hundred and thirty-eight Victoria Crosses were distributed during the Great War, six among Americans in the Canadian Army, fifty-five among the rest of the Dominion's 450,000 soldiers, and 177 among the British troops, who numbered approximately 5,000,000 in 1917–18. That is: to Americans, 1 to 2,000; to Canadians, 1 to 8,100; to British, 1 to 28,200.

The Victoria Cross is the highest military honor bestowed by the British Government. It is the rarest decoration given by any nation, fewer than one thousand having been granted since it was instituted in 1856, at the close of the Crimean war. For these reasons, and the additional reason that the wearer gets a life pension of £10 ($50) a year, it is the most prized of all military decorations.

The Americans upon whom the cross was bestowed are:

Corporal H. G. B. Miner, V. C., born on a farm near Cleveland, O., killed in action.

Sergeant G. H. Mullin, V. C., M. M., born in Portland, Ore.

Sergeant W. L. Rayfield, V. C., born in New York.

Captain B. S. Hutcheson, V. C., M. C., born at Mt. Carmel, Ill., practising physician of Mound City, Ill.

Corporal W. H. Metcalf, V. C., M. M., born in Walsh County, Me.

Sergeant R. L. Zengel, V. C., M. M., born at Faribault, Minn.

Four of the six, it will be noted won the Military Medal or the Military Cross in addition to the Victoria Cross.

CHAPTER XXXIII

WITH THE AMERICANS IN SIBERIA

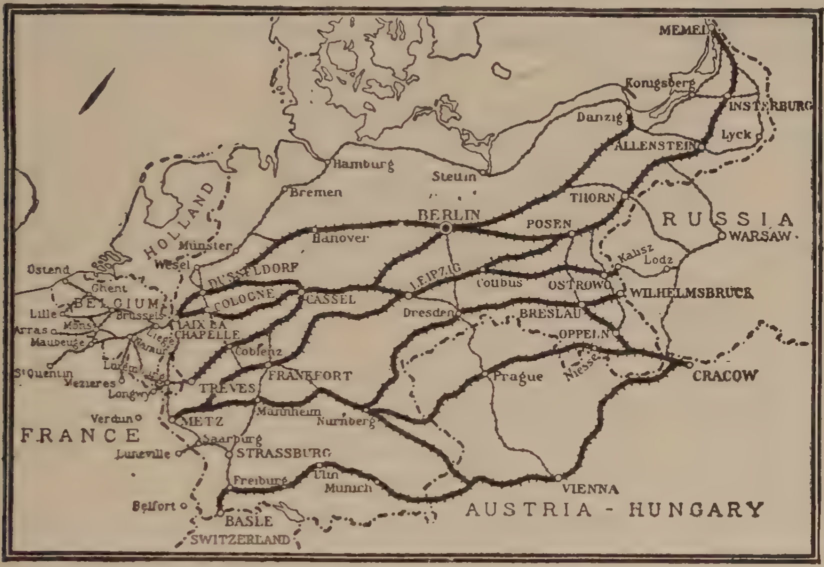
AMERICA'S soldiers served in the World War not only in the struggle against militant autocracy but also in the fight against ruthless and murderous radicalism. They invaded the blizzard-swept wastes of the Arctic region to battle against Russian Bolshevist troops with the same determined courage that met the shock troops of Prussia and compelled the surrender of Germany on the western front.

The need for American artillery, infantry and engineers came when Bolshevik control endangered great stores of supplies owned by the Allies in Archangel, Vladivostock and their neighborhoods and when large numbers of Russians, rising against Bolshevik domination rose under the leadership of Admiral Kolchak, General Judenich and General Denikin against the government of Lenine and Trotsky.

The reign of terror in Russia was accompanied by sporadic efforts at resistance. Here and there throughout the country attempts were made to establish local governments. A provisional Siberian government was proclaimed on July 10, 1918, under the leadership of Lieutenant-General Horvath, and the whole of the Murman coast region seceded from Russia on July 7th. Turkestan was declared to be a republic on July 26th, and on August 7th the authorities at Archangel declared that they repudiated the Bolshevist government. All these movements were welcomed, and to a large extent aided by the Allies. But it was the Czecho-Slovak exodus which brought about allied military intervention. The Czechs are the inhabitants of Bohemia, Moravia and Austrian Silicia.

The Slovaks lived in the upper regions of Hungary but are of the same race and language as the Czechs. They had, for many years, been in a state of unrest, and after the war began many thousands had been captured by the Russians early in the war, or had surrendered because of their unwillingness to fight against men of Slavic blood had enlisted under the Russian colors.

When the Russian armies collapsed the Czecho-Slovaks marched off toward Vladivostok hoping to go from thence to France or Italy and fight again on the allied side. The Bolsehvist troops were sent to disarm them. In the fighting that ensued the Czecho-Slovaks were victorious, and seized upon a large section of the Trans-Siberia railroad. The allied nations sympathized strongly with the Czecho-Slovaks, and a joint expedition was dispatched to Siberia and Russia to co-operate with them. To technically justify this act the Czecho-Slovaks were recognized as a belligerent nation. There had been much difference of opinion as to the advisability of intervention in Russia. America in particular had feared that such action would be resented by the Russian people, and she also was determined that no action of hers should be taken which might ultimately lead to the re-establishment of the Russian autocracy. But the Czecho-Slovak



Germany's Strategic Railways.

This map of the railways connecting France and Belgium with Russia and Austria shows how the Germans were able to transfer troops east or west as pressure of the Allies demanded.

resistance swept away all doubt. On August 3d the United States and Japan issued proclamations disclaiming any desire of territorial aggrandizement, or any intention of dictating a form of government for Russia, but declaring it to be their purpose to protest their supplies, and to assist the Czecho-Slovaks as well as any Russian efforts at self-government which would accept their assistance.

On August 7th it was announced that Major-General William S. Graves would command the American Expeditionary Force which would number about seven thousand men, including the 27th and 31st Regiments of Regular Infantry, which were then in the Philippines. Prior to this, however, the American forces had intervened in the north. On July 15th an allied force in which there was a detachment of American marines had landed at Murmansk, an arctic port northeast of Petrograd, under the command of Rear-Admiral Kemp, of the British Navy. The whole Murmansk coast was declared to be Russian territory under allied protection. On August 4th another detachment landed at Archangel.

The American forces in Russia faithfully conformed to the announced policy of the American Government. They took part in aggressive campaigns, they protected railroads, fed the people, and assisted the Czecho-Slovaks and the native population in their struggle against the Bolsheviki. This was not done without many skirmishes, but the losses of American troops were slight. The primary object of the occupation of Murmansk and Archangel was to keep the large stores of American munitions and supplies at Kola, which had been purchased during the rule of the Czar, but never paid for, from falling into hostile hands. When the allied troops landed the Americans were greeted with enthusiasm by the people of northern Russia. The various anti-Bolshevist elements were organized into a provisional government of the country of the north. Ambassador Francis and other diplomatic representatives of the allied powers at once established themselves at Archangel, and the American Red Cross sent in large supplies of foodstuffs and other necessities. Throughout the year war was carried on with more or less vigor against the Bolshevist forces.

In the spring of 1919 there were at Archangel 13,100 British troops, 4,830 American, 21,349 French, 1,340 Italians, 1,280 Serbians and 11,770 Russians. In Siberia there were 55,000 Czecho-Slovaks, 12,000 Poles, 4,000 Serbians, 4,000 Armenians, 2,000 Italians, 1,600 British, 760 French, 28,000 Japanese, 4,000 Canadians and 7,500 Americans. The Russian forces added to these made an army of about 210,000 men. The loyal Russians in Siberia were united under the government of Admiral Kolchak, and were holding possession of nearly all Siberia.

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

One of the most awful features of the great war was the tragedy of Russia, and yet that tragedy with its boundless suffering and its Red Terror began as a comparatively peaceful revolution. It was not the Bolshevists that overthrew the Czar. They were a small minority. Their leaders were in hiding or in exile. The revolution itself was brought about through the action of Moderates, and for some time was controlled by representatives of the people in the Russian Duma. It was the result of long agitation. The Russian Czars, in recent years, at least, had been well-meaning men, but they had surrounded themselves by a corrupt bureaucracy, which had antagonized the liberal parties of Russia and had been administering the government autocratically and corruptly. Disaffection had shown itself long before the war, but had been put down with a ruthless hand.

The war itself was immensely popular. The Russian naturally sympathized with Serbia, a Slavonic sister state, and he was willing to support the policy of the old régime in their long-continued attempt to capture Constantinople.

All parties joined in the support of the Russian armies, but as the war went on the feeling of discontent with the Russian Government grew greater and greater. The Russian people were suffering horribly. They were losing millions of men in what appeared to be fruitless battle. Food had become scarce, and the cost of living was growing day by day. Moreover, the Russian bureaucracy was filled with men who were German by birth or by descent, and the Russian patriot thought that he was fighting not only the German armies but treachery at home.

Much of this feeling was, no doubt, unjustified. In times of stress the world is filled with unfounded rumors, which are readily believed. But the Czar made little effort to free himself from suspicion. He employed in office ministers who were unpopular and suspected of being German tools. In 1915 Sukhomlinov and Maklakhof were driven from power by the influence of the army and the Duma. In 1916 Stuermer, a German by descent, became Prime Minister, and Protopopov became Minister of the Interior. Protopopov was a tool of the notorious Rasputin, and deeply under suspicion. On November 14, 1916, the opposition to ministerial incompetents showed itself in the Duma when Miliukov, the leader of the Constitutional democrats, made a fierce attack upon the Prime Minister and compelled him to resign. His successor, Trepov, was forced to retain Protopopov in the ministry. A little later came the first move in the Russian Revolution, the assassination of Rasputin, who posed as a sort of a saint and miracle worker. He became the friend of men of importance, and it was rumored that he had an extraordinary influence upon the Czarina. The public believed him to be the evil spirit of the Imperial Circle and to be responsible for the appointment to office of Protopopov and other men suspected of being under German influence. On the 29th of December he was invited to dine with Prince Yusapov, a young gentleman of wealth and position. Upon entering Prince Yusapov's house, he found there the Grand Duke Dmitri Pavlovitch and M. Purishkevitch, a member of the Duma. After a short altercation he was shot and his body taken to the Neva River where, weighted with stones, it was dropped into the water through a hole in the ice.

After the death of Rasputin there was a period of calm. Endeavors were made by Protopopov to encourage disturbance, so that he might strengthen himself by its forceful repression. But these endeavors were fruitless. The people remained calm, but they were hungry. The Czar was on the battlefield. The Russian armies were now in better shape than they had been for many months. He was absorbed in the war, and paid little attention to warnings that he received of the dissatisfaction of the people behind the lines. But the food problem became more and more difficult, and, as usual under such conditions, wild rumors spread of profiteering and of hoarding. On March 8, 1917, several bakershops were looted. The next day the streets were crowded and Cossacks rode here and there fraternizing with the people. Street speakers began to appear denouncing the government. The police could not repress disorder. On March 11th the streets were cleared and guarded by police and soldiers. Rioting began and more than two hundred of the rioters were killed.

One regiment on being ordered to fire on the mob mutinied, and Rodzianko, president of the Duma, warned the Czar that anarchy was reigning in the capitol and demanded that a new government be formed. The Prime Minister, who at this time was Prince Golitzin, prorogued the Duma, declaring it to be the center of disaffection, but the Duma refused to be dissolved and declared itself the sole constitutional authority of Russia.

On March 12th the city was seized by a mob. The police were hunted through the streets, fighting desperately, and the prisoners were released from the jails. The Duma kept in constant session. Message after message was sent to the Czar urging him to come to the capitol, but he did not come. The Duma appointed an executive committee to form a provisional government. It contained such names as Rodzianko, Lvov, Miliukov and Kerensky. The workmen and soldiers also formed a committee, thus beginning the Soviet organization, afterwards to become so notorious. The Duma committee was composed of men of modern political views. The Soviet committee was full of extremists. On March 13th it became evident that the army would accept the authority of the provisional government, and on Wednesday, the 14th of March, the revolution was over.

The provisional government and the Soviet of Petrograd at first worked in harmony. They issued proclamation after proclamation. Many of these were sensible, but one of them ultimately turned over the control of the nation into the hands of the Bolshevists. This was a proclamation to the army directing that "the orders of the War Committee must be obeyed, saving only on those occasions when they shall contravene the orders and regulations of the labor deputies and military delegates." It also abolished the necessity for private soldiers to salute their officers, and thus destroyed military authority and enabled the Bolshevists to control the army. Meanwhile, the Czar had set out for Petrograd, but had been stopped at the Bologoi station where workmen had pulled up the track, and had returned to Pskov. He then attempted to make terms with the Duma, but it was too late. He was compelled to abdicate, and on March 15th issued a proclamation handing over the throne to his brother, the Grand Duke Michael Alexandrovitch. A new ministry was then formed with Prince George Lvov as Prime Minister, Miliukov as Minister of Foreign Affairs and Kerensky as Minister of Justice. The announcement that Grand Duke Michael would succeed the Czar was not acceptable to the Petrograd mob. He was compelled to decline the appointment, and, on Friday, March 16th, handed over all power to the provisional government.

The provisional government was controlled by the Moderates, who made up the majority of the Duma. The Petrograd Soviet was composed of extremists. Their creed was socialism. There were three groups of socialists in Russia, the first was the Social Revolutionists, of whom Kerensky was the leader. They believed in the socialist state but did not preach class war or internationalism. They were patriotic in their desire to carry on the war. The second group were the Bolsheviki. The word means majority. They were followers of Karl Marx. They cared nothing for national life, recognized no political boundaries and were eager for peace on any terms. The only war in which they were interested was the war of the proletariat against the bourgeoisie. At first they were but a small minority, but they were able to attract to their standard the mass of the people by promising the nation peace, and by promising the peasants land. They included among their numbers the densely ignorant and the criminal classes, who, long repressed by law, now saw their opportunity to revenge themselves upon the supporters of the law. Their leaders, however, were fanatical Socialists, anxious to experiment in Russia with their theories of proletariat rule. The main leaders of this group were Vladimir Iljetch Uljanov, known throughout the world under the name of Nicholas Lenine, and Leon Trotsky, whose real name was Leber Braunstein.

Lenine was of good family and educated at the Petrograd University. He was a man of ability and had written several books on the economic phases of Russian life. Before the war he had been driven from Russia because of his socialistic activities, and was living in Switzerland at the time of the revolution. By permission of the German Government he at once returned to Russia and assumed the leading position among the Bolsheviki. Trotsky three months before the revolution was living in New York City, and was a Jew, born in the Russian government of Kherson near the Black Sea. He, too, had at once returned to Russia and become a Bolshevist leader.

The third group of Russian Socialists were the Mensheviki, the minority. They were socialists but believed in using existing forms of government to carry out social reform.

During the period in which the provisional government was on the throne, the Czar and his family were treated with respect. They lived quietly in the Alexandrovsky Palace in Tsarskoe-Selo. The Czar amused himself by shoveling snow in the Palace Garden, and the Czarina nursed her children who were very ill with measles. The Bolsheviki, later on, transferred them first to Tobolsk and then to Yekaterinberg, where, on July 16th, they were murdered by the Ural Regional Council. The overthrow of the Czar, on the whole, was not regretted by the Allies, but his murder produced a wave of indignation. He was personally of amiable character, patriotic and loyal to the Allies, but it was believed that he was surrounded by traitors, who were constantly interfering with the conduct of the war.

The Allies hoped to find the war conducted with greater vigor on the Russian front, and America, which shortly after entered the war, was pleased to find that in her contest for democracy she did not have to count among her Allies the

Russian autocrat. At first the provisional government appeared to be a great success. The great army generals accepted the revolution; the grand dukes, indeed, were retired, but splendid soldiers took charge of the Russian Army. Alexiev became commander-in-chief; Ruzsky commanded the northern army; Brusilov, the southern; Kornilov was in command of Petrograd, and Lechitsky commanded the center. The provisional government attempted to continue the war, and Kerensky, a new political figure, in inspiring speeches was stirring the country to new efforts. Many liberal measures were passed, which naturally led to public good-feeling. Political prisoners were released, Poland promised its independence, the Finnish constitution restored, and the absolute political equality of the Jews proclaimed.

The outlook seemed full of promise, but clouds soon appeared on the horizon. The Bolshevists were not satisfied, and were conducting a persistent propaganda in favor of immediate peace. At first the Soviet supported the government, and Kerensky, who became more and more the leading personality in Russia, took the post of Minister of War amid popular acclaim. But Miliukov and those who, like him, favored a republic, were compelled to retire. It was about this time that special missions were sent to Russia by the Allies to encourage the government in its new policies. Among these was the American mission to Russia headed by Elihu Root, former Secretary of State. Mr. Root conducted himself with great tact and good sense, and his mission on the surface was extremely successful. But the Bolsheviki, at that time in the background, believed him to be a representative of American wealth, and were little affected by his inspiring addresses.

Meanwhile, the war went on. At first the Russian Army met with great success, but later the want of discipline brought about by Soviet influences made itself felt. Regiments refused to fight or to obey their officers.

While the Russian armies were thus defeating themselves, one regiment made itself conspicuous by its loyalty and discipline. This was the woman's regiment, known as the "Command of Death." This regiment was commanded by a girl, Lieutenant Britchkarev. It was composed of girls mostly between eighteen and twenty-five years old, many of them pretty. They were dressed in the ordinary soldier's khaki blouse, short breeches, green forage cap, ordinary woman's black stockings and neat shoes. They wore their hair short or had their heads entirely shaved. This battalion had been carefully drilled by a male sergeant of the Volinsky regiment. It fought with great bravery setting an example of courage to the mutinous regiments.

The defeat of the Russian armies led to riot and anarchy throughout the country. But Kerensky retained the confidence of the people. He was made dictator, and organized a government which acted with great vigor. Ringing addresses were issued to the army denouncing its mutinous spirit, but the army could not be rallied, and a general retreat followed. Kerensky, who earlier had been responsible for the abolition of the death penalty, now insisted that it be restored in the army.

An extraordinary council met at Moscow August 26, 1917. This conference consisted of twenty-five hundred delegates, representing the Duma, the Soviets and all organized Russia. Both Kerensky and General Kornilov, who had been made commander-in-chief of the army, made important addresses. Kornilov, in particular, insisted upon the necessity of regenerating the army. General Kaledines, leader of the Don Cossacks, read a resolution passed by the Cossacks demanding a continuation of the war. But the conference took no definite action, and immediately after its adjournment Riga, the most important Russian Baltic port, was captured by the Germans.

This led to a political crisis, and to a split between General Kornilov and Premier Kerensky. The exact nature of this difference is still in dispute. Kornilov, it was reported, demanded a surrender of all power into his own hands. Kerensky denounced him as a traitor, and he raised the standard of rebellion. Kerensky assumed the functions of commander-in-chief, and took military measures to resist the rebels. The revolt collapsed. Kornilov was arrested and the provisional government appeared to be stronger than ever. A statement made on September 24, 1917, by General Alexiev, whose patriotism and honor are proverbial throughout Russia, throws a peculiar light upon these incidents. He says:

"It is now proved by documents that Kerensky and Kornilov had come to an agreement to stifle by force the maximalist menace, and to establish a dictatorship. With this object in view, Kornilov, in perfect accord with Kerensky, had begun to assemble trustworthy troops around the capitol. I do not know what were the motives that caused Kerensky, while this coup was in progress, to abandon Kornilov and to throw in his lot with the Petrograd council of workmen and soldiers. Consequently, Kornilov is neither a reactionary nor a traitor. He acted in accord with the provisional government for the purpose of increasing its strength."

In thus breaking with Kornilov Kerensky had lost not only the strong support of that great soldier but the confidence of many of the strongest forces that were keeping him in power. The agitation against his government continued, and on November 7th an armed insurrection, led by Leon Trotsky and Nicholas Lenine, took possession of Petrograd. There was little resistance except that by the woman's battalion and the military cadets. Kerensky escaped from Petrograd and organized an army of Cossacks and military cadets, with which he advanced toward Petrograd, but his troops met with defeat and Kerensky was forced to flee. For months he was in hiding, but finally turned up in England, safe, indeed, but much discredited.

Kerensky was a patriot and an honest man. He appears to have had an extraordinary power of oratory. Again and again he saved the provisional government from the attacks of anarchy. But he made two great mistakes, first, in weakening army discipline, a mistake which he himself found out too late; and, second, in deserting Kornilov, who had been one of the main sources of his strength.

On the assumption of power by the Bolshevists, a new cabinet was named. Its Premier was Nicholas Lenine, its Foreign Minister, Leon Trotsky. It at once opened negotiations with the Central Powers for an armistice, and on December 17th such an armistice went into effect. Russia was in a turmoil, but the Bolshevist Government held strongly to its position. Negotiations for peace were instituted. Meanwhile, numerous edicts of a revolutionary character were issued by the new government. Titles, distinctions and privileges were abolished, the corporate property of nobles, merchants and burgesses was to be handed over to the state, as well as all church property, lands, money and precious stones. Religious instruction was to cease in the schools. All loans and treasury bonds held by foreign subjects were repudiated. Kornilov and the associates of Kerensky were imprisoned, and the houses of the leaders of the Cadet party were raided. The secret treaties made between Russia and foreign governments were made public. Strikes were in progress everywhere, and disorder rampant.

Negotiations for peace went on and continued amidst acrimonious debate at Brest-Litovsk. The Russians found that their hopes for "no annexations, no indemnities" could not be fulfilled. Resistance on their part was met only by threats. On January 27th, Trotsky reported conditions to the Soviets at Petrograd. He declared that the government of the Soviets would not sign a treaty such as was insisted upon by Germany. It was then decided to demobilize the Russian Army and yield to the German demands without signing a treaty. The German forces at once began a new invasion in Russia, upon which the Bolshevist Government announced that peace terms had been accepted. The treaty was signed at Brest-Litovsk on March 3, 1918. On March 14th the Russian Council of Soviets voted to ratify the treaty. Trotsky still resisted, but was overruled. The following is the substance of what Russia lost by the treaty of Brest-Litovsk:

Inhabitants	56,000,000
(About one-third total European Russia)	
Territory	300,000 square miles
(About one-sixth total European area)	
Railways	13,000 miles
(About one-third total mileage)	
Coal	89 per cent
Iron	73 “
Machinery	1,073 factories

Textiles	918 factories
Paper	615 “
Chemicals	244 “
Tobacco	133 “
Spirits	1,685 distilleries
Beer	574 breweries
Sugar	268 refineries

This treaty was not recognized by the allied nations, nor did it lead to peace on the Russian frontier. Germany was still compelled to keep large bodies of troops in the east to hold the new territory, but formally the war between Russia and Germany was at an end.

The Bolsheviki government was now able to turn its attention to Russia. Lenine's government proceeded to work out an elaborate scheme of state control over national production and distribution as a preliminary step toward the complete socialization of the country's industry and commerce. It issued a degree abolishing private ownership of land. All the forests, mines, waters, and landed estates, with their livestocks, buildings and machinery were declared the common property of the people. All newspapers were seized by the government. Trotsky explained that the abstract legal notion of the freedom of the press is meaningless in the social republic of Soviets; that a free press is a press serving the interests of the people, that is, the workmen and peasants. All national loans issued under the imperial and bourgeois régime were definitely repudiated. The banking system was nationalized and the authorities empowered to transfer to the state bank all funds contained in the strong boxes of the private banks, and to confiscate all gold coin and bullion. A Red Army was organized, which was to consist of the most revolutionary elements of the working classes. The courts were replaced by revolutionary tribunals, generally composed of men and women without special knowledge of the law. A scheme to control production was the so-called Soviets of Workmen's Control, which undertook to regulate the economic life of industrial plants, the control in each enterprise being given to elective bodies of the workmen. The Institute of Social Soviets of National Economy was created,

U. S. Official Photograph.

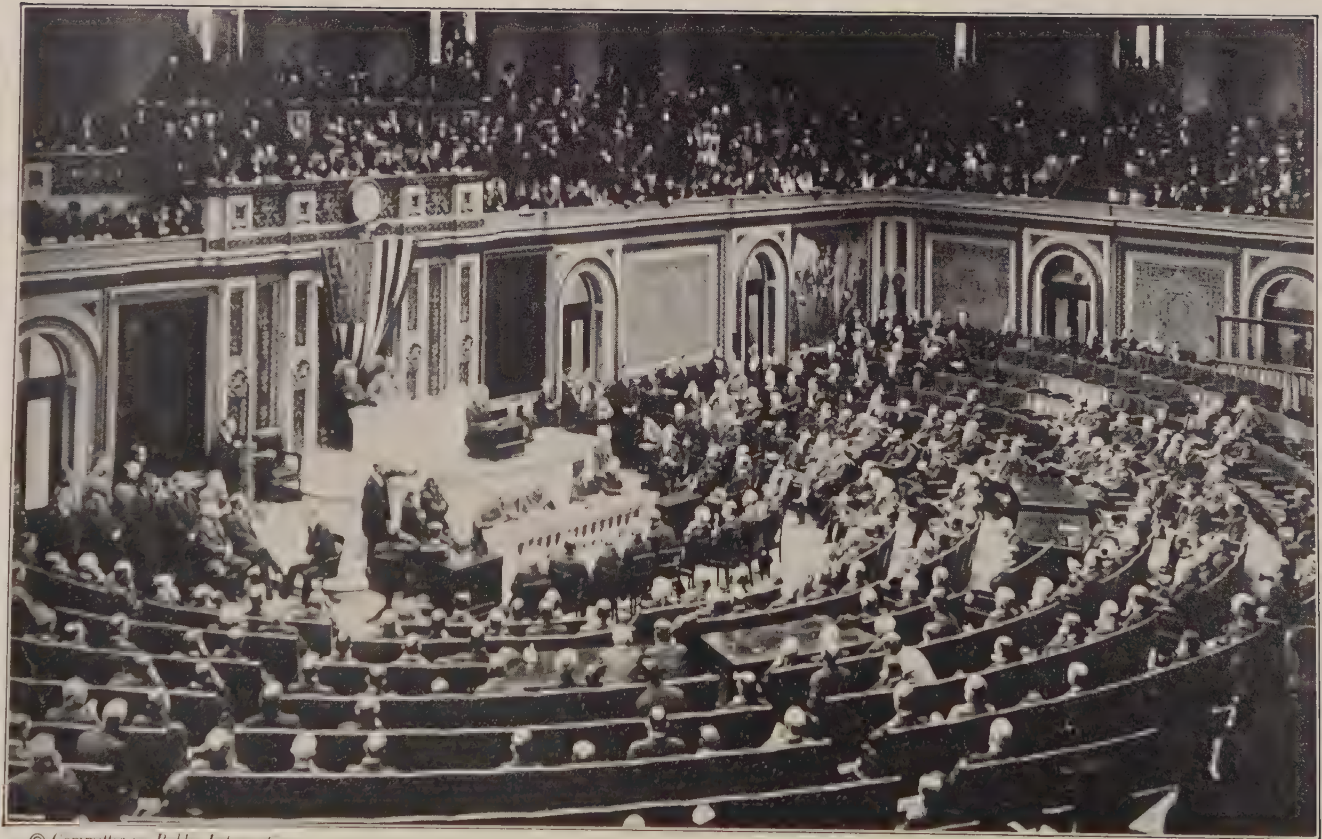
THE HARVEST

A familiar sight in the quiet sectors of the battle line was this view of an American soldier assisting French women in the fields.

U. S. Official Photograph.

THANKING THEIR DELIVERERS

French peasants released from German bondage are expressing the thanks of a grateful people.



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U. S. Official Photograph.

ANNOUNCING THE ARMISTICE TERMS

President Wilson in the House of Representatives reading his historic message to Congress on the day the fighting ended, November 11th, 1918.

"for the purpose of organizing and regulating the economic life of each industrial section in accordance with the national and local interests." Land committees were appointed to put into effect the decree nationalizing land, and compulsory insurance was carried out by the Institute of Insurance Soviets.

These and other numerous acts brought about constant disorder and suffering. Food conditions became terrible, and the nationalization of industries led to industrial chaos. The Red Terror became a fact. Wholesale murder of innocent civilians, seizure without legal process of all property, absolute suppression of free speech and free press, became the daily story of Russian life.

CHAPTER XXXIV

ALIEN PROPERTY SEIZED

AN important phase of the operation of the government during the war was the treatment of alien enemies residing in this country. In 1917 two acts of Congress were passed dealing with this question. One known as the Espionage Act, approved June 15th, and the other the Trading with the Enemy Act, approved October 6th. Each of these acts covers a variety of subjects. The Trading with the Enemy Act, in dealing with subjects of Germany who are residents of the United States, authorized the appointment of an Alien Property Custodian, for the custody and control of enemy property within the United States, and on October 22d, A. Mitchell Palmer was appointed to the office, which he filled until March 5, 1919, when he became Attorney-General of the United States, and was succeeded by Francis P. Garvan, of the New York Bar, who had been his main assistant.

Mr. Palmer had been a member of Congress from the Twenty-sixth District of Pennsylvania for several years and had become a Democratic leader in Congress and in Pennsylvania. By common report, a report not denied, he had been offered the position of Secretary of War in President Wilson's first cabinet, but had refused the position because of his Quaker origin and associations. Yet, Mr. Palmer had shown in politics that he had plenty of good fighting blood, and he emphasized this characteristic as Alien Property Custodian.

It has now become plain that long before the beginning of the great war Germany had been laying the foundation for the industrial conquest of America. Her powerful financial interests had invaded this country, and had acquired an immense degree of power and influence in the business affairs of America. The German Government was undoubtedly of the opinion that the German power in America would be easily able to keep America out of the war, or if we should go in to paralyze our efforts. It is not alone that thousands of German citizens in the natural course of business had invested their earnings in American corporations or other enterprises, it was also discovered that an immense amount of capital was invested in America by interests closely associated with the German political and military powers. Such investors were already controlling many of the greatest industrial and commercial enterprises. These investors were aided by the German Government, and were hostile to the United States. They were secret allies of the German Government.

Years before the war the Germans had been coming to America and settling and becoming citizens of the new country. Yet by German law, they still retained their German citizenship. They held fast to their German language, they established German schools and newspapers and organized themselves into great German societies which kept constantly in touch with the Fatherland. They were good citizens, peaceful, industrious and educated, yet they did not assimilate readily with their fellow American citizens. Their love for the old country was kept alive by deliberate German propaganda.

They sympathized with Germany, and expressed their sympathy with great frankness. When America entered into the war such Germans and their children, born perhaps in America but German at heart, were in a most difficult position, and it is much to their credit that a very great majority of them preferred to stand by the country that they had adopted rather than the country of their birth. But a minority, strong in intelligence and wealth, became active enemies. It was with this class of men that the Alien Property Custodian had mainly to deal.

When Mr. Palmer began his duties he found that the act creating his office gave him very limited power, and he describes himself as at first being merely a "benevolent conservator of the property of our enemies." He was only to act as a sort of guardian of the interests of others who could not look after their own property. He at once went before Congress to obtain greater power, and after some delay obtained the adoption of three amendments to the Trading with the Enemy Act—first, the power to dispose of enemy property which might come into his possession; second, the power to seize and dispose of patents owned by Germans which were being protected by the American Government; and third, the power of requiring a corporation, a portion of whose stock was owned by enemies to issue new certificates in the name of the Alien Property Custodian for shares held in enemy territory. Each of these amendments was highly necessary, and it was not until they had passed that the Alien Property Custodian was able to turn over into American hands the important industries owned by the Germans.

On February 5, 1919, 35,400 reports of enemy property had been filed in the office of the Alien Property Custodian. For each verified case a separate trust was created. The number of those trusts when Mr. Palmer became Attorney-General was 32,296 with an aggregate book value of $502,945,724. Nine thousand other cases had not at that date reached the stage of valuation. This, of course, was only a small part of the German investment in this country. During the winter before America entered the war German investors, foreseeing the certainty of war, dumped on America millions of dollars' worth of securities, which were thus, of course, owned by American citizens, when America entered the war.

The German property seized by the Alien Property Custodian is more than sufficient to repay American citizens for their losses by German submarines, before the war began, and will probably be used for that purpose. A great majority of the 32,000 trust estates were simply held by the Alien Property Custodian as being private investments of individual Germans with no connection with the political powers of Germany, and such trust estates may easily be restored to the individual owners if that policy is thought wise. But these were in most cases comparatively small investments.

Big corporations which were German controlled were not only using their power against America, but in some cases turned out to be centers of German propaganda or even for German spies. An illustration of this was found in the Bayer Company owned by great German chemical interests. This corporation endeavored to continue business under the camouflage of American ownership and finally, when Mr. Palmer was able to obtain control, he discovered, in the first place, more than a million dollars of concealed government taxes, and in the second place, government agents found in the cellar of the company's warehouse twenty-three trunks containing letters and documents from private files of Bernstorff, Dernberg and other leaders of the German spy system in America.

Another interesting German company was the Orenstein-Arthur Koppel Company which manufactured certain railroad supplies and machinery used in large industrial plants. At the beginning of the World War this company contracted to supply these railway supplies to Russia. This was contrary to German law, but in a communication sent to the German Embassy at Washington they expressed the hope that they would be pardoned, as they really had rendered a great service to the Fatherland by making the contract and failing to deliver the goods. This same company, as well as eighteen branches of German insurance companies in this country, obtained ostensibly for their own use floor plans and specifications of the various industrial plants with which they did business, and the fact that in many of these plants explosions later on occurred at vulnerable points, seemed to government agents an extraordinary coincidence.

Another interesting bit of information was brought to light by the Alien Property Custodian in connection with the harbor of St. Thomas. Germany for a long time had prevented Denmark from selling these islands to America. In January, 1917, the United States purchased the islands. When the Alien Property Custodians seized the Hamburg-American line he investigated the ownership of the great terminal of that line at St. Thomas. He found that the plant was fitted up as a naval base, that the principal building commanding the harbor was of reinforced concrete, that the plaza in front of it had an eight-foot foundation of concrete such as is used for gun emplacements. It would have been easily possible for a ship of the Hamburg-American line, in which the Kaiser was a stockholder, to have unloaded long-range guns from its hold and made the port a fortification of tremendous strength. The owner of the property was a Danish lawyer, by name Jorgensen, who claimed to have purchased it from the agent of the Hamburg-American, five days after the United States had purchased the islands, for $210,000, for which he had given his note, a note payable in three months without interest, with the provision that it should be renewed every three months until after the war. The Hamburg-American agent, who had been the German Consul to St. Thomas, was still in charge. The Germans were caught in their own trap. Jorgensen was forced to transfer his title to the Alien Property Custodian and the property was sold to the Government of the United States for the nominal sum which the Hamburg-American line itself had fixed as its price in the sale to Jorgensen.

This company's office in New York was a meeting place for all German agents in America before America entered the war. After the seizure of this property and the transfer of its ownership to the United States Government. Herr Ballin, the head of the Hamburg-American line, seeing his dream of world-wide commercial empire dissolved, committed suicide.

One of the most important weapons employed by the Alien Property Custodian was the seizure of German-owned patents, especially of those connected with the dye-stuff industry. German chemists had a practical monopoly of dyestuff and chemical business in American markets on account of their patents of processes and products. This industry was almost a German state institution. Some 4,500 German patents were seized by the Alien Property Custodian and a corporation was formed known as the Chemical Foundation, with a capital stock of $400,000 and a common stock of $100,000 to acquire these patents. Under this company the use of the processes and products covered by the patents was granted to the entire chemical industry, and thus an important impulse has been given to the upbuilding of industrial chemistry in America.

This is but one of the great American industries which has been freed from German control as a result of the war.

CHAPTER XXXV

PAVING THE WAY FOR AN ARMISTICE

GERMANY overwhelmed on land by the forces of the Allies, and with its submarine menace checked in every sea, was now on the point of unconditional surrender. Ludendorff and Von Hindenburg saw in the avalanche of khaki that was breaking through the Argonne the destruction of the great German Army. Orderly retreat on the western front was daily becoming more difficult. The air forces of the Allies due to America's immense production of Liberty motors and the advance host of American battleplanes and aviators were almost ready to make the long heralded dash into the heart of Germany. Mountains of gas shells and munitions of many varieties were waiting in America or had already been transported to France. A military defeat had been suffered by Germany on the western front. It was approaching the proportions of an ignominious rout. Back of that defeat loomed a disaster greater than any that had befallen any great army in the history of the world. The time had come for peace at any price.

Germany paved the way for its peace overtures by dismissing Count Von Hertling as chancellor of the Empire and by raising to the chancellorship Prince Maximilian of Baden on September 30th.

Maximilian was not a militarist in the sense that Von Bethmann Hollweg and Von Hertling had been. He was rated as a moderate at home and abroad. The Entente Allies and the Germans recognized that proposals of peace were about to be made through official channels.

Previous to this the Austro-Hungarian Government on September 15th addressed a note to all belligerents and neutral powers and to the Vatican asking for a peace conference. This overture was made at the direct suggestion of Germany. It was a cunning plan involving a conference without actual cessation of war activities. Germany's idea was that hostilities would be half-hearted during the peace discussion, and that the death-grip of Foch upon the German Army would be released. America's reply was an emphatic refusal:

> The Government of the United States feels that there is only one reply which it can make to the suggestion of the Imperial Austro-Hungarian Government. It has repeatedly and with entire candor stated the terms upon which the United States would consider peace and can and will entertain no proposal for a conference upon a matter concerning which it has made its position and purpose so plain.

The pressure of America and its co-belligerents along the entire western front continued. German morale at home and in the field was breaking fast.

Prince Maximilian realized that the end had come, and he set to work to avert the disaster that threatened the German armies by an abject appeal to President Wilson to end the war on his own terms.

For his purpose Prince Max selected the President's famous "fourteen points of peace" and his Liberty Loan speech of September 27th as the basis of negotiations.

It was on Tuesday, January 8, 1918, that the President of the United States enunciated his fourteen points of peace before both Houses of Congress in joint session. The fourteen principles were:

> *First.* Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at, after which there shall be no private international understanding of any kind, but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in the public view.
>
> *Second.* Absolute freedom of navigation upon the seas, outside territorial waters, alike in peace and war, except as the seas may be closed in whole or in part by international action for the enforcement of international covenants.
>
> *Third.* The removal, so far as possible, of all economic barriers and the establishment of an equality of trade conditions among all the nations consenting to the peace and associating themselves for its maintenance.
>
> *Fourth.* Adequate guarantees given and taken that national armaments will be reduced to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety.
>
> *Fifth.* A free, open-minded and absolutely impartial adjustment of all Colonial claims based upon a strict observance of the principle that in determining all such questions of sovereignty, the interests of the popula-

tions concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the Government whose title is to be determined.

Sixth. The evacuation of all Russian territory and such a settlement of all questions affecting Russia as will secure the best and freest co-operation of the other nations of the world in obtaining for her an unhampered and unembarrassed opportunity for the independent determination of her own political development and national policy, and assure her of a sincere welcome into the society of free nations under institutions of her own choosing; and, more than a welcome, assistance also of every kind that she may need and may herself desire. The treatment accorded Russia by her sister nations in the months to come will be the acid test of their good will, of their comprehension of her needs, as distinguished from their own interests, and of their intelligent and unselfish sympathy.

Seventh. Belgium, the whole world will agree, must be evacuated and restored, without any attempt to limit the sovereignty which she enjoys in common with all other free nations. No other single act will serve as this will serve to restore confidence among the nations in the laws which they have themselves set and determined for the government of their relations with one another. Without this healing act the whole structure and validity of international law is forever impaired.

Eighth. All French territory should be freed and the invaded portions restored, and the wrong done to France by Prussia in 1871, in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine, which has unsettled the peace of the world for nearly fifty years, should be righted, in order that peace may once more be made secure in the interests of all.

Ninth. A readjustment of the frontiers of Italy should be effected along clearly recognized lines of nationality.

Tenth. The peoples of Austria-Hungary, whose place among the nations we wish to see safeguarded and restored, should be accorded the freest opportunity of autonomous development.

Eleventh. Roumania, Serbia and Montenegro should be evacuated, occupied territories restored; Serbia accorded free and secure access to the sea, and the relations of the several Balkan States to one another determined by friendly counsel along historically established lines of allegiance and nationality; and international guarantees of the political and economic independence and territorial integrity, of the several Balkan States, should be entered into.

Twelfth. The Turkish portion of the present Ottoman Empire should be assured a secure sovereignty, but the other nationalities which are now under Turkish rule, should be assured an undoubted security of life and an absolutely unmolested opportunity of autonomous development, and the Dardanelles should be permanently opened as a free passage to the ships and commerce of all nations under international guarantees.

Thirteenth. An independent Polish State should be erected which should include the territories inhabited by indisputably Polish populations, which should be assured a free and secure access to the sea, and whose political and economic independence and territorial integrity should be guaranteed by international covenants.

Fourteenth. General association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small States alike.

In his Liberty Loan address of September 27th President Wilson said:

First. The impartial justice meted out must involve no discrimination between those to whom we wish to be just and those to whom we do not wish to be just. It must be a justice that plays no favorites and knows no standard but the equal rights of the several peoples concerned;

Second. No special or separate interest of any single nation or any group of nations can be made the basis of any part of the settlement which is not consistent with the common interests of all;

Third. There can be no leagues or alliances or special covenants and understandings with the general and common family of the League of Nations;

Fourth. And more specifically, there can be no special, selfish economic combinations within the league and no employment of any form of economic boycott or exclusion except as the power of economic penalty by exclusion from the markets of the world may be vested in the League of Nations itself as a means of discipline and control;

Fifth. All international agreements and treaties of every kind must be made known, in their entirety to the rest of the world.

CHAPTER XXXVI

VICTORY IN SIGHT

THE campaign of the American 1st Army in France may be said to have had three phases. The first, which began on September 26th was the drive north through the country east of the Argonne forest. The second phase carried the 1st Army through the Argonne, smashed the Kriemhilde line and captured Grand Pré. The third phase began on November 1st, when General Liggett's army marched up through the country west of the Meuse, liberating hundreds of French villages and capturing thousands of prisoners until its final entry into historic Sedan.

In its last drive the object of the American Army was twofold: first, to cut the railroad in the neighborhood of Sedan; secondly, to clear the country east of the Meuse, in the direction of Longwy, and so to threaten the Briey Basin, from whose iron fields Germany had obtained the supplies which had enabled her to prolong the war. The drive north for the railroad began on November 1st. It was a new experience for the American troops. German resistance had disappeared. The American advance began at 5.30 in the morning, when the 77th, 80th, 2d, 89th, 90th and 5th Divisions marched forward.

The Germans retreated rapidly, fighting only rear-guard actions, and by November 7th the Americans entered the city of Sedan after liberating a hundred French villages, and cutting the main German system of communication. As the American troops on the west bank of the Meuse pushed their way to the north they found themselves exposed to artillery and machine-gun fire from the heights on the east bank. Operations east of the Meuse had, indeed, begun before November 1st under the direction of the 17th French Corps, which had under it the 2d Colonial French Corps and a number of American divisions. The 29th and the 33d Divisions, under command of General Coudal, were assigned to this duty. The Germans were in great force because of their desire to protect the Briey Basin.

The attack began the morning of October 8th. There was great difficulty in crossing the Meuse, and when this was accomplished the allied forces were subjected to terrific fire from the German artillery on Etrayes Ridge. The 26th Division was then sent to their aid, and though for several days these troops suffered great loss they managed at last to push their way forward. By October 23d they had stormed the Etrayes Ridge, and four days later the Bois de Belleau was cleared after a stubborn defense.

The American line then waited until their line west of the river had advanced. On November 5th, the American 5th Division was sent over the Meuse from a line reaching from Brieulles to the neighborhood of Montigny. This was a difficult undertaking, as the eastern bank of the Meuse was studded with machine guns. Two attempts were made. In the first attempt only two companies got across, one battalion crossing on rafts, duck boards with poles and ropes, and by swimming. These maintained their position and so enabled the rest of the division to cross the river. Two days later the 5th Division had stormed the northern bulwark of the banks of the Meuse, and with the aid of the divisions on its right, had driven the enemy through the plain of the Woevre. The American armies were in position to attack the city of Metz, and advance into Lorraine.

The advance of the American Army west of the Meuse was a much easier matter. Indeed, at many points the Germans retreated with such speed that contact with the enemy was lost. At certain points, however, rear-guard actions were fought.

The advance began at 5.30 o'clock in the morning of November 1st, and was preceded for two hours by intense artillery preparation, during which the Americans fired two hundred thousand gas shells. Then the American center shot ahead. The left was held up at the Bois-de-Loges. On the right along the Meuse there was heavy resistance in spite of which Clery-Le-Grande was occupied.

On November 2d there was fighting at Buzancy and

Clery-le-Petit, which is near the Meuse river. For a part of the day the Americans followed the retreating Germans in trucks, but the difficulties of the roads prevented this from being an ordinary method of pursuit. On November 3d the Americans swept on taking Authe, Beauclair and Montigny. On November 4th the Germans made more of a stand, and there was fighting along the Meuse south of Stenay. On November 6th, the advance continued until it reached the southern outskirts of the city of Sedan. On November 7th bridges across the river at Sedan were built under heavy fire, and the Germans were driven out of Sedan.

American operations after November 7th were mainly those advancing the line east of the Meuse. On November 10th, the German 5th Army, which had been holding out strongly at Stenay, and preventing American progress north on the eastern side of the Meuse, and which was strongly protected by hundreds of machine-gun nests and terrific artillery barrages from the hills about it, was compelled to surrender to the American 1st Army.

This was America's last important battle. On November 11th came the end of the war. Just before eleven o'clock when the armistice went into effect, the Germans hurled a few parting shells into Verdun, and at exactly eleven, thousands of American heavy guns fired their last shot. At many batteries the artillerists joined hands forming a long line as the lanyard of the final shot.

While the Americans were making this dash upon Sedan the allied forces upon all other fronts were advancing with almost equal ease. The French and British armies which had captured Cambrai and established themselves east of Le Cateau were marching northward. These were the 4th British Army under the command of General Rawlinson, who had on his right the French 1st Army, under General Debeney, and on his left the 30th and later the 27th Divisions of the American Army. These forces on October 20th pushed north of the Selle river, pressing forward on a twenty-five-mile front, which extended from a point northwest of Tournai to a point southwest of Valenciennes. By the 23d they had reached the suburbs of Valenciennes, which was captured by the Canadians on November 2d. The American Divisions had notably contributed to the success of this advance, occupying the Le Quesnoy-Valenciennes railway and taking over five thousand German prisoners. On November 4th the British 1st, 3d and 4th armies with the two American Divisions, made a further advance, carrying their front more than three miles east of the Oise-Sambre line. In this advance ten thousand prisoners were captured, and many towns liberated. Among these towns were Landrecies, and Le Quesnoy, which was taken by the New Zealanders after it had been surrounded and had refused to surrender.

Day after day the advance gained impetus, until finally on November 11th the English cavalry and Canadian troops marched into the city of Mons, the very town in which the British had been stationed when the war began, and from which they had made their famous retreat. On the Oise-Aisne front General Mangin, with Debeney on his left and Berthelot and Gouraud on his right, were advancing with equal speed. After the occupation of Laon and La Fère, General Mangin's army pushed rapidly forward and soon caught up with Gouraud's advance from the south. On October 24th he crossed the Oise Canal at Longchamps, southeast of Le Cateau, relieving General Debeney's army, which had been slowed up by German resistance. On October 25th a further advance pierced the Hunding line. By the end of October, Debeney and Mangin had driven beyond the Oise, and were pushing the Germans back from the Scheldt to the Aisne. On November 8th the French armies reached the outskirts of Mezières. On the 9th, they entered Hirson, and Maubeuge was occupied by Rawlinson's army.

To the east of this advance General Gouraud was pushing forward simultaneously with the American drive to his right. He had been held up at Vouziers where his line fell south of the Aisne until Rethel was reached. The French made little advance until November 1st, being hampered by operations to their left. On November 1st Gouraud's front swept across the Aisne, in spite of valiant resistance on the Alleux Plateau, and the Croix-aux-Bois defile. From that point Gouraud's Army continued its advance northward, without serious German resistance, and by November 11th had occupied the whole country between the American forces and Mangin's army up to the Meuse.

During this last week it was already practically certain that the German surrender was coming. Only weak rearguards were opposing the allied advance. The Germans, however, were retreating in an orderly manner, and fighting desperately, whenever it was necessary to prevent the rolling up of their flanks or the rupture of their center. It was probably the German idea to give the impression that they had saved their army, and would be still capable of resistance in case they could not procure satisfactory terms of peace.

The movement of the Belgian-French Armies in the north, which has previously been described, had extended the line from Zeebrugge on the coast, southeast of Bruges, on Courtray, east of Lille, Douai, and Cambrai, and steadily continued in the direction of the River Scheldt, where the enemy were fortified. Here again the Germans made no stubborn resistance. By October 20th the coast of the Dutch frontier had been cleared, the Lys Canal toward Ghent had been crossed, and many bridges had been taken. Town after town which had been in possession of the Germans for four long years was liberated. The British 2d Army co-operated with the French. On October 31st it captured Audenarde, fourteen miles southwest of Ghent, while the Belgian armies were pushing on further north until they were within five miles of Ghent.

The last Belgian town to be liberated before the armistice was the city of Ghent. The Germans deserted Ghent on November 11th at two o'clock in the morning, and at seven o'clock the Belgian troops marched in. The streets were filled with citizens shouting, cheering and embracing. Bells rang out from the belfries of all the churches. The city was full of joy. The celebration continued until midnight, and indeed, it may almost be said to have continued until November 13th, when King Albert and the young queen made their triumphal entry, escorted by Belgian, French and British Generals.

While the armies of Germany were thus being driven headlong from the countries they had treated with such brutality, important events were transpiring which were leading to the absolute destruction of the military power and were even threatening the political existence of the central nations. Bulgaria had withdrawn from the war and Turkey had surrendered. It was now the turn of Austria.

On the evening of October 29th, an Austrian officer, bearing a white flag, approached the Italian lines, coming from the enemy trenches close to Serravalle in the Adige Valley and applied for an armistice. As he was not sufficiently credited he was sent back. The next day a group appeared under the white flag headed by General von Weber, an Austrian corps commander. They were driven in motor cars to General Diaz's headquarters, and negotiations for an armistice were at once begun. As a result of various pourparlers the armistice was signed by General Diaz to go into effect at three o'clock November 4th.

Revolution was already agitating the whole of the Dual Empire, and its dissolution had begun. The empire was breaking up into independent states. Rioting had taken place in Budapest. Emperor Charles acquiesced in the inevitable by appointing Professor Lammasch as head of the ministry to restore their former imperial powers to the various national governments. Hungary declared its independence, and a National Council, headed by Count Michael Karolyi, took over the government. On November 11th, Emperor Charles abdicated. The empire of Austria had come to an end.

The armistice of November 4th was a complete surrender. It provided for the total demobilization of the Austro-Hungarian Army, and the immediate withdrawal of all Austro-Hungarian forces operating on the front from the North Sea to Switzerland. It also provided for the evacuation of all territories invaded by Austria-Hungary since the beginning of the war, and gave to the Allies the right of free movement over all road and rail and waterways in Austro-Hungarian territory. Prisoners of war were to be returned, all hostilities at sea were to be ended, and the Austro-Hungarian Navy either surrendered or disarmed. Germany's greatest ally had collapsed.

CHAPTER XXXVII

GERMANY SURRENDERS

THE armistice which ended the war was signed by the German plenipotentiaries at 5 A. M., Paris time, midnight, western time on November 11, 1918. It went into effect at 11 A. M., French time, six o'clock, western time, on the same day. Negotiations for an armistice had begun on October 6th, when Prince Maximilian, of Baden, the then German Imperial Chancellor, sent to President Wilson a letter, reading as follows:

> The German Government requests the President of the United States to take in hand the restoration of peace, acquaint all the belligerent states with this request, and invite them to send plenipotentiaries for the purpose of opening negotiations.
>
> It accepts the program set forth by the President of the United States in his message to Congress on January 8th, and in his later pronouncements, especially his speech of September 27th, as a basis for peace negotiations.
>
> With a view to avoiding further bloodshed, the German Government requests the immediate conclusion of an armistice on land and water and in the air.

On October 8th, President Wilson replied asking whether the Imperial Chancellor was speaking merely for the constituted authorities of the empire, who had so far conducted the war. He stated, moreover, that he would not feel at liberty to propose a cessation of arms so long as the armies of the central powers were upon the soil of the Allies.

On October 12th, Dr. W. S. Solf, the Imperial Foreign Secretary, replied to President Wilson, declaring the German Government to be representative of the German people, and that it was ready to evacuate all foreign territory and to accept President Wilson's terms. This was regarded in Germany as the ending of the war, and was received with great enthusiasm. An Amsterdam despatch to a London paper declared, "People in Berlin are kissing one another in the streets though they are perfect strangers, and sending peace congratulations to each other. The only words heard anywhere in Germany are 'Peace at last.' "

On October 23d the President announced that he had transmitted this correspondence with the German authorities to the allied governments with the suggestion that the terms of an armistice should be prepared to insure to the associated governments the unrestricted power to safeguard and enforce details of peace. He pointed out that it was not clear that the German Government were veritable representatives of the German people, and declared that if the United States "must deal with the military masters and the monarchical autocrats of Germany now, or if it is likely to have to deal with them later in regard to the international obligations of the German Empire, it must demand, not peace negotiations, but surrender."

On October 27th the German Foreign Secretary acknowledged President Wilson's previous note, declared that peace negotiations were being conducted by a government of the people in whose hands rested both actually and constitutionally the authority to make decisions, and stated that it was now ready for proposals for an armistice.

On October 31st representatives of the allied governments met at Versailles to consider the terms of an armistice. Among those present were Premier Clemenceau, of France; Premier Orlando, of Italy; Premier Lloyd George, of Great Britain; and Colonel E. M. House, of the United States. Among military advisers present were General Tasker H Bliss, Marshal Foch and Field Marshal Sir Douglas Haig.

Meanwhile, the allied armies were smashing the German lines, which were retreating from Belgium and France with enormous losses. On November 5th a note was sent to Germany by Secretary of State Lansing in which he stated that Marshal Foch had been authorized to receive German delegates, and to communicate to them the terms of an armistice. It also stated that the allied governments were willing to make peace according to the terms laid down in President Wilson's addresses, except that they reserved to themselves complete freedom on the subject of Clause 2, relating to the freedom of the seas, about which there was some difference of opinion.

The German Government acted at once. On the 7th of November the following communication from the German High Command to Marshal Foch was made public:

> The German Government, having been informed through the President of the United States that Marshal Foch had received powers to receive accredited representatives of the German Government and communicate to them conditions of an armistice, the following plenipotentiaries have been named by it: Mathias Erzberger, General H. K. A. von Winterfeld, Count Alfred von Oberndorff, General von Grunnel, and Naval Captain von Salow.
>
> The plenipotentiaries request that they be informed by wireless of the place where they can meet Marshal Foch. They will proceed by automobile, with subordinates of the staff, to the place thus appointed.

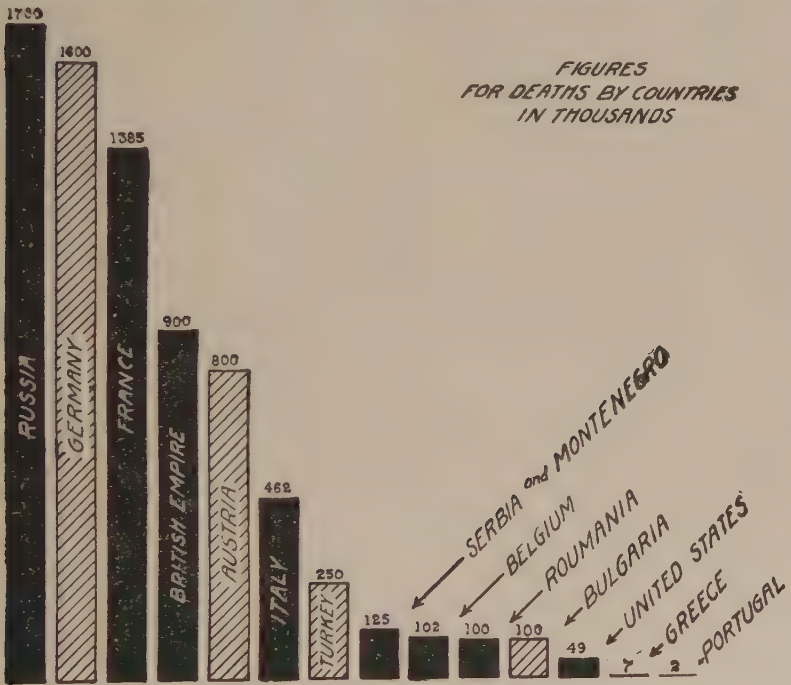

Chart Showing, in Thousands, the Battle Deaths in the World War—A Total of 7,582,000

Later in the day, it was announced that the German plenipotentiaries had left Spa and would reach, by five o'clock in the afternoon, the French outposts at a certain point on La Capelle. Orders were given to cease fire on this front at 3 P. M. until further notice. The delegates arrived in three automobiles at 9.15 P. M., having been delayed by the condition of the roads. They were received by officers whom Marshal Foch had detailed to guide them. They were then escorted in automobiles, with the window curtains drawn, to the Château Francfort in Compiegne forest, where they passed the night. The next morning they were taken to Rethondes where they found Marshal Foch in his special train.

They were speedily acquainted with the harsh terms of the armistice and told that it was to be accepted or rejected within seventy-two hours. Permission was given to send a courier to Spa, and to communicate with that place by wireless.

With General Foch at the time of the interview were Major-General Maxime Weygand, his assistant; Vice-Admiral Sir Rosslyn Wemyss, First Lord of the British Admiralty, and the American Vice-Admiral William S. Sims.

A German courier, bearing the text of the armistice arrived at German headquarters at 10 A. M. November 10th. There had been some delay because the German batteries were bombarding the route he had to follow. An attempt was made to send him across the lines by airplane, but in spite of orders from German headquarters the German batteries went on firing without intermission. At last the batteries directed against La Capelle ceased fire, and the courier, Captain Helldorf, was able to start by automobile.

Nineteen hours after he reached the German headquarters the armistice was signed, official notification being made at Washington at 2.40 A. M., November 11th, by the Secretary of State.

On November 7th it was announced in New York, four days before the armistice was actually signed, that Germany had surrendered. The announcement was based on a false report sent out by the United Press Association, a private corporation supplying news to many afternoon newspapers throughout the country. A cablegram had been received by this association from the city of Brest, which contained the information. It had been obtained from Rear-Admiral Henry B. Wilson, one of the most distinguished officers of the American Navy. The dispatch had passed the censor in France and was taken as authoritative.

The next day Admiral Wilson assumed the responsibility for the mistake, stating that the news had been made public from his office on the basis of what appeared to be official and authoritative information. The mistake probably originated from the order to cease firing at 3 P. M. at that part of the front where the German delegates were to cross the line.

The news was sent widely throughout the United States, and was followed by a tremendous celebration, in every city, village and hamlet of the country, as well as in the city of Brest, where the report originated. The city of New York, in particular, went mad with joy. Crowds paraded the streets. Fifth Avenue was jammed for three miles and the whole town was aroused. The courts were closed, and all business ceased, except theatrical performances and the dispensing and retailing of food.

The tremendous tension of years of war was over, and when the sirens, whistles and bells began their clamor about one o'clock in the afternoon, men and women of all ages, and all stations in every part of the country stopped their business and joined in a hilarious carnival of joy which was beyond comparison with anything ever seen in the history of the country. The streets were filled with a jostling, squeezing, crushing stream. Familiarities that would have been horrifying in old friends were forgiven to passing strangers. Everything was turned upside down. By some mystic understanding people in the cities all over the country were emptying wastebaskets of paper from windows, and tearing up newspapers and throwing them into the air to serve as confetti. In some streets the pavements were ankle deep with paper. Society girls, shop girls and factory girls, rich men, poor men, soldiers, sailors, anarchists, capitalists mixed together in the crowds. In New York the mob was too dense to penetrate. It was a vast quivering jelly of men, women, street cars taxi-cabs, trucks, limousines, and delivery wagons.

When the real news came on Novemeber 11th the celebration was even greater; perhaps there was a little less spontaneity, a little more of a pre-arranged air about it, but it was none the less hearty, none the less universal. Streets were filled with processions. Again all business was suspended, and the whole country, with the rest of the world, joined in the celebration.

Throughout the entire world, the nations gave themselves up to holiday. Strangely enough, the soldiers on the front were much more restrained in their joy than the civil populations. The armies fought to the last minute. At eleven o'clock there was one great salvo from the guns, then the sharp order "Cease firing." The men stood still, as if numb with shock. They knew nothing of what was coming, most of them, then they broke into laughs as they learned that the war was over. The Germans sprang from their positions and began to shout and sing with joy, and wave white flags, beckoning to the allied soldiers to come over. Strict orders had been given, however, against fraternizing. The Americans, perhaps, showed more enthusiasm than the soldiers in the other armies. In their camps, the bands played, and the men marched in the streets, cheering and celebrating. Thousands of flags appeared suddenly, and among the English every soldier had a bit of color at the end of his rifle, or stuck to his belt. The joy in Belgium was even greater, and the bells rang out from the churches, the bands played, and the people crowded round their marching troops, dancing and singing, until the midnight chimes.

Thousands of Americans managed to get to Paris in time to join in the celebration there. The strict shackles of military organization could hardly keep the soldiers, or even the officers in hand. The military police in American uniforms were kept busy, but could not prevent America from having her part in the wonderful Paris celebration.

President Wilson made the announcement of the armistice before a joint session of the Senate and the House of Representatives at 1 P. M., November 11th, in the Hall of the House of Representatives. The galleries were crowded with men and women whose names were familiar throughout all America.

Before going to the Capitol, the President had issued a proclamation to the people announcing the conclusion of hostilities and directed that the employees in the various Government Departments should be given a holiday. The proclamation reads as follows:

> My Fellow-Countrymen: The armistice was signed this morning. Everything for which America fought has been accomplished. It will now be our fortunate duty to assist by example, by sober, friendly counsel, and by material aid in the establishment of just democracy throughout the world.

On November 10th, the Kaiser fled across the Dutch frontier, and took up his residence at Count Goddard Bentinck's Château of Amerongen. The Crown Prince also fled to Holland, and was interned at Mosterland. The Kaiser had resisted a demand for his abdication up to the last hour, and had attempted to prevent the armistice delegation from being sent to the French lines, but except by a group of his personal friends he found no support. The situation was hopeless. As he signed his abdication, he is reported to have said, "It may be for the good of Germany."

Germany was beaten to her knees and the iron rule of militarism was at an end. The great monarchy, with its sword-swinging Kaiser as ruler, became a republic, with a saddler—Ebert by name—at its head.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

WITH THE ARMY OF OCCUPATION

WITH the unconditional surrender of Bulgaria, the smashing of the Hindenburg line and the headlong retreat of the German armies along the entire western front, the Teutonic coalition crumbled to ignominious defeat.

Turkey met its disaster at the end of September and the beginning of October, when General Allenby captured Damascus, routed two Turkish armies and besieged Aleppo. Palestine had been overrun and Jerusalem had been taken. On October 26th, British cavalry and armored cars entered Aleppo and cut the important railroad artery between Constantinople and Bagdad. General Marshall on October 29th defeated the Turks at Kaleh Shergat and cut communications with Mosul. These operations resulted in the concluding of an armistice with Turkey on October 31, 1918. The armistice imposed upon Turkey follows:

THE TURKISH ARMISTICE

First—The opening of the Dardanelles and the Bosporus and access to the Black Sea. Allied occupation of the Dardanelles and Bosporus forts.

Second—The positions of all mine fields, torpedo tubes and other obstructions in Turkish waters are to be indicated and assistance given to sweep or remove them, as may be required.

Third—All available information concerning mines in the Black Sea is to be communicated.

Fourth—All allied prisoners of war and Armenians, interned persons and prisoners, are to be collected in Constantinople and handed over unconditionally to the Allies.

Fifth—Immediate demobilization of the Turkish army, except such troops as are required for surveillance on the frontiers and for the maintenance of internal order; the number of effectives and their disposition to be determined later by the Allies, after consultation with the Turkish Government.

Sixth—The surrender of all vessels in Turkish waters or waters occupied by Turkey. These ships will be interned in such Turkish port or ports as may be directed, except such small vessels as are required for police and similar purposes in Turkish territorial waters.

Seventh—The Allies have the right to occupy any strategic point in the event of any situation arising which threatens the security of the Allies.

Eighth—Free use by allied ships of all ports and anchorages now in Turkish occupation and denial of their use by the enemy. Similar conditions are to apply to Turkish mercantile shipping in Turkish waters for the purposes of trade and the demobilization of the army.

Ninth—Allied occupation of the Taurus Tunnel system.

Tenth—Immediate withdrawal of Turkish troops from Northern Persia to behind the pre-war frontier already has been ordered and will be carried out.

Eleventh—A part of Transcaucasia already has been ordered to be evacuated by Turkish troops. The remainder to be evacuated if required by the Allies after they have studied the situation.

Twelfth—Wireless, telegraph, and cable stations to be controlled by the Allies. Turkish Government messages to be excepted.

Thirteenth—Prohibition against the destruction of any naval, military, or commercial material.

Fourteenth—Facilities are to be given for the purchase of coal, oil fuel, and naval material from Turkish sources, after the requirements of the country have been met. None of the above materials is to be exported.

Fifteenth—The surrender of all Turkish officers in Tripolitania and Cyrenica to the nearest Italian garrison. Turkey agrees to stop supplies to and communication with these officers if they do not obey the order to surrender.

Sixteenth—The surrender of all garrisons in Hedjaz, Assir, Yemen, Syria, and Mesopotamia to the nearest allied commander and withdrawal of Turkish troops from Cilicia, except those necessary to maintain order, as will be determined under Clause Five.

Seventeenth—The use of all ships and repair facilities at all Turkish ports and arsenals.

Eighteenth—The surrender of all ports occupied in Tripolitania and Cyrenica, including Misurata, to the nearest allied garrison.

Nineteenth—All Germans and Austrians, naval, military, or civilian, to be evacuated within one month from Turkish dominions, and those in remote districts as soon after that time as may be possible.

Twentieth—Compliance with such orders as may be conveyed for the disposal of equipments, arms, and ammunition, including the transport of that portion of the Turkish army which is demobilized under Clause Five.

Twenty-first—An allied representative to be attached to the Turkish Ministry of Supplies, in order to safeguard allied interests; this representative to be furnished with all aid necessary for this purpose.

Twenty-second—Turkish prisoners are to be kept at the disposal of the allied powers. The release of Turkish civilian prisoners and prisoners over military age to be considered.

Twenty-third—An obligation on the part of Turkey to cease all relations with the Central Powers.

Twenty-fourth—In case of disorder in the six Armenian vilayets, the Allies reserve to themselves the right to occupy any part of them.

Twenty-fifth—Hostilities between the Allies and Turkey shall cease from noon, local time, Thursday, the 31st of October, 1918.

An additional clause, made public two days later, dealt with the Russian region of the Caucasus, as follows:

> Allied control officers are to be placed on all railways, including such portions of the Transcaucasian railways as are now under Turkish control; these must be placed at the free and complete disposal of the allied authorities, due consideration being given to the needs of the population. This clause is to include the allied occupation of Batum. Turkey will raise no objection to the occupation of Baku by the Allies.

Italy's glorious victory over the Austro-Hungarian armies was the direct cause of the Austrian surrender and the dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. General von Weber headed the Austrian delegation which on October 31st went to the headquarters of General Diaz commanding the Italian forces and asked the conditions on which an armistice would be granted. As a result of that mission, the terms of the armistice were presented to the Austrians and signed by them on November 3d, taking effect at 3 P. M., November 4th. Emperor Charles V followed the armistice by resigning his imperial throne on November 11th.

THE AUSTRIAN ARMISTICE

As a result of the pourparlers the following armistice was signed by General Diaz on Nov. 3, to go into effect at three o'clock, Nov. 4th:

Military Conditions

One—The immediate cessation of hostilities by land, by sea, and by air.

Two—Total demobilization of the Austro-Hungarian army and immediate withdrawal of all Austro-Hungarian forces operating on the front from the North Sea to Switzerland.

Within Austro-Hungarian territory, limited as in Clause Three, below, there shall only be maintained as an organized military force a body reduced to pre-war effectiveness.

Half the divisional, corps, and army artillery and equipment shall be collected at points to be indicated by the Allies and United States of America for delivery to them, beginning with all such material as exists in the territories to be evacuated by the Austro-Hungarian forces.

Three—Evacuation of all territories invaded by Austro-Hungary since the beginning of the war.

Withdrawal within such periods as shall be determined by the commander-in-chief of the allied forces on each front of the Austro-Hungarian armies behind a line fixed as follows: From Pic Umbrail to the north of the Stelvio it will follow the crest of the Rhetian Alps up to the sources of the Adige and the Eisach, passing thence by Mounts Reschen and Brenner and the heights of Oetz and Zoaller. The line thence turns south, crossing Mount Toblach and meeting the present frontier Carnic Alps. It follows this frontier up to Mount Tarvis, and after Mount Tarvis the watershed of the Julian Alps by the Col of Predil, Mount Mangart, the Tricorno, (Terglou), and the watershed of the Cols di Podberdo, Podlaniscam, and Idria. From this point the line turns southeast toward the Schneeberg, excludes the whole basin of the Save and its tributaries. From the Schneeberg it goes down toward the coast in such a way as to include Castua, Mattuglia, and Volosca in the evacuated territories.

It will also follow the administrative limits of the present province of Dalmatia, including in the north Lisarica and Trivania, and to the south territory limited by a line from the (Semigrand) Cape Planca to the summits of the watersheds eastward, so as to include in the evacuated area all the valleys and water courses flowing toward Sebenico, such as the Cicola, Kerka, Butisnica, and their tributaries. It will also include all the islands in the north and west of Dalmatia from Premuda, Selve, Ulbo, Scherda, Maon, Paga, and Puntadura, in the north, up to Meleda, in the south, embracing Santandrea, Busi, Lisa, Lesina, Tercola, Curzola, Cazza, and Lagosta, as well as the neighboring rocks and islets and passages, only excepting the islands of Great and Small Zirona, Bua, Solta, and Brazza.

All territory thus evacuated shall be occupied by the forces of the Allies and the United States of America.

All military and railway equipment of all kinds, including coal belonging to or within those territories to be left in situ and surrendered to the Allies, according to special orders given by the commander-in-chief of the forces of the associated powers on the different fronts. No new destruction, pillage, or requisition to be done by enemy troops in the territories to be evacuated by them and occupied by the forces of the associated powers.

Four—The Allies shall have the right of free movement over all road and rail and water ways in Austro-Hungarian territory and of the use of the necessary Austrian and Hungarian means of transportation. The armies of the associated powers shall occupy such strategic points in Austria-Hungary at times as they may deem necessary to enable them to conduct military operations or to maintain order.

They shall have the right of requisition on payment for the troops of the associated powers wherever they may be.

Five—Complete evacuation of all German troops within fifteen days, not only from the Italian and Balkan fronts, but from all Austro-Hungarian territory.

Internment of all German troops which have not left Austria-Hungary within the date.

Six—The administration of the evacuated territories of Austria-Hungary will be intrusted to the local authorities, under the control of the allied and associated armies of occupation.

Seven—The immediate repatriation without reciprocity of all allied prisoners of war and internal subjects of civil populations evacuated from their homes, on conditions to be laid down by the commander-in-chief of the forces of the associated powers on the various fronts. Sick and wounded who cannot be removed from evacuated territory will be cared for by Austro-Hungarian personnel, who will be left on the spot with the medical material required.

Naval Conditions

One—Immediate cessation of all hostilities at sea and definite information to be given as to the location and movements of all Austro-Hungarian ships.

Notification to be made to neutrals that freedom of navigation in all territorial waters is given to the naval and mercantile marine of the allied and associated powers, all questions of neutrality being waived.

Two—Surrender to the Allies and the United States of fifteen Austro-Hungarian submarines completed between the years 1910 and 1918, and of all German submarines which are in or may hereafter enter Austro-Hungarian territorial waters. All other Austro-Hungarian submarines to be paid off and completely disarmed and to remain under the supervision of the Allies and the United States.

Three—Surrender to the Allies and the United States with their complete armament and equipment of three battleships, three light cruisers, nine destroyers, twelve torpedo boats, one mine layer, six Danube monitors, to be designated by the Allies and the United States of America. All other surface warships, including river craft, are to be concentrated in Austro-Hungarian naval bases to be designated by the Allies and the United States of America and are to be paid off and completely disarmed and placed under the supervision of the Allies and the United States of America.

Four—Freedom of navigation to all warships and merchant ships of the allied and associated powers to be given in the Adriatic and up the River Danube and its tributaries in the territorial waters and territory of Austria-Hungary.

The Allies and associated powers shall have the right to sweep up all mine fields and obstructions, and the positions of these are to be indicated.

In order to insure the freedom of navigation on the Danube, the Allies and the United States of America shall be empowered to occupy or to dismantle all fortifications or defense works.

Five—The existing blockade conditions set up by the allied and associated powers are to remain unchanged and all Austro-Hungarian merchant ships found at sea are to remain liable to capture, save exceptions which may be made by a commission nominated by the Allies and the United States of America.

Six—All naval aircraft are to be concentrated and impactionized in Austro-Hungarian bases to be designated by the Allies and the United States of America.

Seven—Evacuation of all Italian coasts and of all ports occupied by Austria-Hungary outside their national territory and the abandonment of all floating craft, naval materials, equipment and materials for inland navigation of all kinds.

Eight—Occupation by the Allies and the United States of America of the land and sea fortifications and the islands which form the defenses and of the dockyards and arsenal at Pola.

Nine—All merchant vessels held by Austria-Hungary belonging to the Allies and associated powers to be returned.

Ten—No destruction of ships or materials to be permitted before evacuation, surrender, or restoration.

Eleven—All naval and mercantile marine prisoners of the allied and associated powers in Austro-Hungarian hands to be returned without reciprocity.

The armistice with Germany was signed on November 11, 1918, and the great World War, which began in August, 1914, came to an end. The armistice terms imposed on Germany were so drastic that a renewal of the struggle was impossible for her. Germany was compelled to evacuate all the territory on the left bank of the Rhine, the Allies reserving a neutral zone on the right bank and occupying the bridgeheads at Mayence, Coblenz and Cologne. In addition to the surrender of thousands of guns and airplanes and locomotives and motor wagons, Germany had to surrender all her submarines and turn over to the Allies and Associated Powers her High Seas Fleet consisting of six battle cruisers, ten battleships, eight light cruisers, (including two mine layers) and fifty destroyers of the most modern types.

The great fleet was interned at Scapa Flow, but just before the Peace Treaty was signed most of the ships were scuttled by the Germans who had been permitted to remain on board. Following is the complete text of the Armistice with Germany:

THE GERMAN ARMISTICE

I. Military Clauses on Western Front

One—Cessation of operations by land and in the air six hours after the signature of the armistice.

Two—Immediate evacuation of invaded countries: Belgium, France, Alsace-Lorraine, Luxemburg, so ordered as to be completed within fourteen days from the signature of the armistice. German troops which have not left the above-mentioned territories within the period fixed will become prisoners of war. Occupation by the allied and United States forces jointly will keep pace with evacuation in these areas. All movements of evacuation and occupation will be regulated in accordance with a note annexed to the stated terms.

Three—Reparation beginning at once to be completed within fifteen days of all the inhabitants of the countries above enumerated, (including hostages, persons under trial or convicted.)

Four—Surrender in good condition by the German armies of the following war material: Five thousand guns (2500 heavy, and 2500 field), 25,000 machine guns, 3000 minenwerfer, 1700 airplanes, (fighters, bombers—firstly, all of the D 7's and all the night bombing machines). The above to be delivered in situ to the allied and United States troops in accordance with the detailed conditions laid down in the note (annexure No. 1) drawn up at the moment of the signing of the armistice.

Five—Evacuation by the German armies of the countries on the left bank of the Rhine. The countries on the left bank of the Rhine shall be administered by the local troops of occupation. The occupation of these territories will be carried out by allied and United States garrisons holding the principal crossings of the Rhine, (Mayence, Coblenz, Cologne), together with the bridgeheads at these points of a thirty-kilometer radius on the right bank and by garrisons similarly holding the strategic points of the regions. A neutral zone shall be reserved on the right bank of the Rhine between the stream and a line drawn parallel to the bridgeheads and to the stream and at a distance of ten kilometers, from the frontier of Holland up to the frontier of Switzerland. The evacuation by the enemy of the Rhinelands (left and right bank) shall be so ordered as to be completed within a further period of sixteen days, in all, thirty-one days after the signing of the armistice. All the movements of evacuation or occupation are regulated by the note (annexure No. 1) drawn up at the moment of the signing of the armistice.

Six—In all territories evacuated by the enemy there shall be no evacuation of inhabitants; no damage or harm shall be done to the persons or property of the inhabitants. No person shall be prosecuted for offenses of participation in war measures prior to the signing of the armistice. No destruction of any kind shall be committed. Military establishments of all kinds shall be delivered intact, as well as military stores of food, munitions, and equipment, not removed during the time fixed for evacuation. Stores of food of all kinds for the civil population, cattle, etc., shall be left in situ. Industrial establishments shall not be impaired in any way and their personnel shall not be removed.

Seven—Roads and means of communication of every kind, railroads, waterways, main roads, bridges, telegraphs, telephones, shall be in no manner impaired. All civil and military personnel at present employed on them shall remain. Five thousand locomotives and one hundred and fifty thousand wagons in good working order, with all necessary spare parts and fittings, shall be delivered to the associated powers within the period fixed in annexure No. 2, and total of which shall not exceed thirty-one days. There shall likewise be delivered five thousand motor lorries (camion automobiles) in good order, within the period of thirty-six days. The railways of Alsace-Lorraine shall be handed over within the period of thirty-one days, together with pre-war personnel and material. Further, the material necessary for the working of railways in the countries on the left bank of the Rhine shall be left in situ. All stores of coal and material for the upkeep of permanent ways, signals, and repair shops shall be left in situ. These stores shall be maintained by Germany in so far as concerns the working of the railroads in the countries on the left bank of the Rhine. All barges taken from the Allies shall be restored to them. The note, annexure No. 2, regulates the details of these measures.

Eight—The German command shall be responsible for revealing within the period of forty-eight hours after the signing of the armistice all mines or delayed action fuses on territory evacuated by the German troops and shall assist in their discovery and destruction. It also shall reveal all destructive measures that may have been taken, (such as poisoning or polluting of springs and wells, etc.). All under penalty of reprisals.

Nine—The right of requisition shall be exercised by the allied and United States armies in all occupied territories, subject to regulation of accounts with those whom it may concern. The upkeep of the troops of occupation in the Rhineland (excluding Alsace-Lorraine) shall be charged to the German Government.

Ten—The immediate repatriation without reciprocity, according to detailed conditions which shall be fixed, of all allied and United States prisoners of war including persons under trial or convicted. The allied powers and the United States shall be able to dispose of them as they wish. This condition annuls the previous conventions on the subject of the exchange of prisoners of war, including the one of July, 1918, in course of ratification. However, the repatriation of German prisoners of war interned in Holland and in Switzerland shall continue as before. The repatriation of German prisoners of war shall be regulated at the conclusion of the preliminaries of peace.

Eleven—Sick and wounded who cannot be removed from evacuated territory will be cared for by German personnel, who will be left on the spot with the medical material required

II. Disposition Relative to the Eastern Frontiers of Germany

Twelve—All German troops at present in the territories which before belonged to Austria-Hungary, Roumania, Turkey, shall withdraw immediately within the frontiers of Germany as they existed on August 1st, 1914. All German troops at present in the territories which before the war belonged to Russia shall likewise withdraw within the frontiers of Germany, defined as above, as soon as the Allies, taking into account the internal situation of these territories, shall decide that the time for this has come.

Thirteen—Evacuation by German troops to begin at once, and all German instructors, prisoners, and civilians as well as military agents now on the territory of Russia (as defined before 1914) to be recalled.

Fourteen—German troops to cease at once all requisitions and seizures and any other undertaking with a view to obtaining supplies intended for Germany in Roumania and Russia, (as defined on August 1, 1914).

Fifteen—Renunciation of the treaties of Bucharest and Brest-Litovsk and of the supplementary treaties.

Sixteen—The Allies shall have free access to the territories evacuated by the Germans on their eastern frontier, either through Danzig, or by the Vistula, in order to convey supplies to the populations of those territories and for the purpose of maintaining order.

III. Clause Concerning East Africa

Seventeen—Evacuation by all German forces operating in East Africa within a period to be fixed by the Allies.

IV. General Clauses

Eighteen—Repatriation, without reciprocity, within a maximum period of one month in accordance with detailed conditions hereafter to be fixed of all interned civilians, including hostages, (persons?) under trial or convicted, belonging to the allied or associated powers other than those enumerated in Article III.

Nineteen—The following financial conditions are required: Reparation for damage done. While such armistice lasts, no public securities shall be removed by the enemy which can serve as a pledge to the Allies for the recovery or reparation for war losses. Immediate restitution of the cash deposit in the National Bank of Belgium, and in general immediate return of all documents, specie, stocks, shares, paper money, together with plant for the issue thereof, touching public or private interests in the invaded countries. Restitution of the Russian and Roumanian gold yielded to Germany or taken by that power. This gold to be delivered in trust to the Allies until the signature of peace.

V. Naval Conditions

Twenty—Immediate cessation of all hostilities at sea and definite information to be given as to the location and movements of all German ships. Notification to be given to neutrals that freedom of navigation in all territorial waters is given to the naval and mercantile marines of the allied and associated powers, all questions of neutrality being waived.

Twenty-one—All naval and mercantile marine prisoners of the allied and associated powers in German hands to be returned without reciprocity.

Twenty-two—Surrender to the Allies and United States of all submarines (including submarine cruisers and all mine-laying submarines) now existing, with their complete armament and equipment, in ports which shall be specified by the Allies and United States. Those which cannot take the sea shall be disarmed of the personnel and material and shall remain under the supervision of the Allies and the United States. The submarines which are ready for the sea shall be prepared to leave the German ports as soon as orders shall be received by wireless for their voyage to the port designated for their delivery, and the remainder at the earliest possible moment. The conditions of this article shall be carried into effect within the period of fourteen days after the signing of the armistice.

Twenty-three—German surface warships which shall be designated by the Allies and the United States shall be immediately disarmed and thereafter interned in neutral ports or in default of them in allied ports to be designated by the Allies and the United States. They will there remain under the supervision of the Allies and of the United States, only caretakers being left on board. The following warships are designated by the Allies: Six battle cruisers, ten battleships, eight light cruisers, (including two mine layers), fifty destroyers of the most modern types. All other surface warships (including river craft) are to be concentrated in German naval bases to be designated by the Allies and the United States and are to be completely disarmed and classed under the supervision of the Allies and the United States. The military armament of all ships of the auxiliary fleet shall be put on shore. All vessels designated to be interned shall be ready to leave the German ports seven days after the signing of the armistice. Directions for the voyage will be given by wireless.

Twenty-four—The Allies and the United States of America shall have the right to sweep up all mine fields and obstructions laid by Germany outside German territorial waters, and the positions of these are to be indicated.

Twenty-five—Freedom of access to and from the Baltic to be given to the naval and mercantile marines of the allied and associated powers. To secure this the Allies and the United States of America shall be empowered to occupy all German forts, fortifications, batteries, and defense works of all kinds in all the entrances from the Cattegat into the Baltic, and to sweep up all mines and obstructions within and without German territorial waters, without any question of neutrality being raised, and the positions of all such mines and obstructions are to be indicated.

Twenty-six—The existing blockade conditions set up by the allied and associated powers are to remain unchanged, and all German merchant ships found at sea are to remain liable to capture. The Allies and the United States should give consideration to the provisioning of Germany during the armistice to the extent recognized as necessary.

Twenty-seven—All naval aircraft are to be concentrated and immobilized in German bases to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America.

Twenty-eight—In evacuating the Belgian coast and ports Germany shall abandon in situ and in fact all port and river navigation material, all merchant ships, tugs, lighters, all naval aeronautic apparatus, material and supplies, and all arms, apparatus, and supplies of every kind.

Twenty-nine—All Black Sea ports are to be evacuated by Germany; all Russian war vessels of all descriptions seized by Germany in the Black Sea are to be handed over to the Allies and the United States of America; all neutral merchant vessels seized are to be released; all warlike and other materials of all kinds seized in those ports are to be returned and German materials as specified in Clause Twenty-eight are to be abandoned.

Thirty—All merchant vessels in German hands belonging to the allied and associated powers are to be restored in ports to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America without reciprocity.

Thirty-one—No destruction of ships or of materials to be permitted before evacuation, surrender, or restoration.

Thirty-two—The German Government will notify the neutral governments of the world, and particularly the governments of Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Holland, that all restrictions placed on the trading of their vessels with the allied and associated countries, whether by the German government or by private German interests, and whether in return for specific concessions, such as the export of shipbuilding materials, or not, are immediately canceled.

Thirty-three—No transfers of German merchant shipping of any description to any neutral flag are to take place.

VI. Duration of Armistice

Thirty-four—The duration of the armistice is to be thirty days with option to extend. During this period if its clauses are not carried into execution the armistice may be denounced by one of the contracting parties, which must give warning forty days in advance. It is understood that the execution of Articles III and XVIII shall not warrant the denunciation of the armistice on the ground of unsufficient execution within a period fixed, except in the case of bad faith in carring them into execution. In order to assure the execution of this convention under the best conditions, the principle of a permanent international armistice commission is admitted. This commission will act under the authority of the allied military and naval commanders-in-chief.

VII. The Limit for Reply

Thirty-five—This armistice to be accepted or refused by Germany within seventy-two hours of notification.

This armistice has been signed the 11th of November, 1918, at 5 A. M., French time.

F. Foch,
R. E. Wemyss,
Erzberger,
A. Oberndorff,
Winterfeldt,
Von Salow.

When Germany surrendered on November 11th, more than three million German soldiers were massed on the actual fighting front, in four great armies commanded by Generals Below, Marwitz, Hutier and Carlowitz. Opposed to them were the following allied forces under the direction of Marshal Foch:

	Combat Troops
Two Belgian	300,000
Five British	1,500,000
Three American	1,338,169
Ten French	2,500,000
One Italian, plus Polish and Czechoslovak detachments	300,000
Total	5,938,169

According to the terms of the armistice the German troops were obliged to evacuate Belgium, France, Luxemburg, and Alsace-Lorraine by November 25th, and all the terrain west of the Rhine and east of it for a distance of ten kilometers, and at Cologne, Coblenz, and Mayence (Mainz) semicircles with a radius of thirty kilometers, by December 11th.

The Germans at once began their retreat. The armies selected to occupy the evacuated territory were the following:

		For Rhine Zones
All the Belgians	300,000	200,000
Two British	350,000	300,000
One American	470,000	250,000
Three and then two French	550,000	400,000
Total	1,670,000	1,150,000

The retreat of the German Army under Hindenburg was conducted by the transportation expert, General Groene.

The American Army under General Pershing commenced its march to the Rhine at five-thirty o'clock on the morning of Sunday, November 17th. It was the zero hour for the march of victory. Not in the long accustomed line of battle did the men set forth, but in long columns of joyful and peaceful parade. The Americans took no chances. They sent engineers in front to inspect and repair bridges and roads, to examine for land mines and for bombs every object and position that might conceal a trap. Wells and streams were closely examined for traces of poison and disease.

The path of the American Army lay through Lorraine. The first important town in what was once enemy territory entered by the Yankees was Montmedy in the Briey iron basin which had supplied Germany with much of the iron ore used in guns and armament. Montmedy went wild with joy when the 5th Regiment of Marines, heroes of Château-Thierry swung into the central square, the Marine Band ripping out "Hail, Hail, the Gang's All Here." Over the city hall of Montmedy floated the Stars and Stripes, and everywhere the tricolor of France floated from flagstaffs and windows.

The American Army of Occupation was designated as the 3d Army, under command of Major-General John T. Dickman. The divisions leading were the 2d and 32d of the corps commanded by General Hines, and some divisions of the 3d and 4th Corps, General Muir commanding.

Supporting the 3d Corps went the 42d Division, commanded by General MacArthur, and in support of the 1st and 3d Divisions the 4th Corps, commanded by General Hirschey. The divisions on the line were carefully selected. The 2d was commanded by Major-General John A. Lejeune, commander of the marines, who won honors beginning at Belleau Wood and added to them at Château-Thierry, St. Mihiel, and Champagne. On the right was the 32d Division, renowned for its work north of the Marne, later at Soissons, and also in the recent operations. It was made up of men from Michigan and Wisconsin and commanded by General Haan.

The 1st Division was one of regulars, commanded by

General Frank Parker. The 3d Division, also made up of regulars, was commanded by General Preston Brown. Both these regular divisions were made up of picked men.

Along the road from Verdun to Spincourt, a distance of about twenty-five miles, released prisoners of various nationalities traveled toward Verdun in great streams, passing the Americans going in the opposite direction. Many of the former prisoners were attired in cast-off German uniforms and had their effects in wheelbarrows, carts, hand trucks, and baby carriages.

The withdrawal of the German armies from the occupied portions of France and Belgium, in accordance with the terms of the armistice, began on Tuesday, November 12th, the allied armies and the Americans moving forward into the evacuated regions. The departure of the invaders, with their surrender of munitions and the liberation of prisoners in the occupied territory, was accomplished without a hitch and in apparent good faith.

A period of fifteen days after the signing of the armistice had been granted the Germans to evacuate Belgium, Luxemburg and Alsace-Lorraine. On November 21st, after ten of the fifteen days allotted the allied armies had passed beyond Brussels, had penetrated into Luxemburg, and had reached Saarbrücken and the line of the Rhine to the Swiss border. In these ten days the Belgians had advanced fifty miles, the Americans and British thirty, and the French forty, and the entire front was being advanced from eight to ten miles a day. Antwerp was formally occupied November 17th, Mülhouse November 17th, Antwerp November 18th, Brussels, by the King of the Belgians on November 22d, and Strassbourg on November 23d. Everywhere the advancing troops were welcomed by the inhabitants. The demonstrations by the people in Alsace and Lorraine were marked by undisguised joy; even in Luxemburg, which was believed to have strong German leanings, the American troops were cordially received.

When the Americans passed through Luxemburg they were reviewed by General Pershing from the balcony of the palace of the Grand Duchess, who stood beside him with members of the Cabinet.

Prior to the entry of the troops General Pershing in a proclamation assured the public that the American Army would remain only as long as was necessary, and while it was in Luxemburg would conduct itself in conformity with the civil law. The proclamation was distributed among the troops as well as among the population.

General Pershing entered the city ahead of his troops. The American commander-in-chief and his staff drove into the capital in automobiles. The general was greeted by thousands of cheering Luxemburgers and with the blowing of sirens and the ringing of church and school bells. The 18th Infantry of the 1st Division were the first American troops to enter the city.

The American Army of Occupation entered Germany December 1, 1918. It crossed the Moselle and Sauer rivers and spread out over a sector of sixty miles. The first important city to be occupied was Treves. Silence that was variously construed as sullenness and fear marked the demeanor of the inhabitants. Units of the American forces were immediately entrained for Coblenz, which became the center of American occupancy along the Rhine. The great fortress of Ehrenbreitstein was occupied by the Americans on December 10th, and on December 13th the American Army crossed the Rhine. By December 17th, all the American units assigned to the Coblenz bridgehead and the sector of which it was the center had settled down into their billets. An American post-office was immediately established and patrols of the 1st, 2d and 32d Divisions saw to it that the regulations imposed by General Dickman were enforced.

These provided that there should be no fraternizing between German civilians and American soldiers. It was difficult to prevent German children from making friendships with American doughboys and the regulations were eased so far as they related to the youngsters. As the occupation continued the rules were adjusted so that they bore less heavily than at first upon both civilians and soldiers.

Sales of firearms in Coblenz were prohibited by orders of the Burgermaster inspired by General Dickman. All theaters and cafes were compelled to close at eleven o'clock at night. Stringent regulations were made preventing the sale of intoxicants by civilians to American soldiers. Most of the punishments were for infractions of the last named regulation. Public buildings were utilized as headquarters but hotels and private homes were used as billets.

General Pershing under date of December 22d issued a code for the government of the inhabitants of all regions in Germany occupied by Americans. The code was framed with the idea of avoiding humiliation of the people or anything that would seem to imply a spirit of revenge. On the other hand, the clauses of the code were enforced with strict impartiality.

Demobilization of the American forces drew from the Army of Occupation steadily. The 1st Division which was the first great unit to go overseas and the first division to enter Germany, was the last to leave the zone of occupation. By April 1, 1919, the homeward rush was in full swing. General March, chief-of-staff of the United States Army, on that date gave the following data of demobilization.

> Orders from November 11, 1918, to April 5, 1919, for the demobilization of approximately 1,836,500 men were as follows:

Troops in the United States	1,326,000
Oversea troops returned to the United States	510,500
Total ordered demobilized	1,836,500

> The estimated strength of the army on April 1st was 2,055,718. We have demobilized forty-four per cent of the men who were in the service on November 11, 1918, and forty-eight per cent of the officers; 30,636 officers have been appointed to commissions in the Reserve Corps on their own application, and 15,101 of these officers have applied for appointment in the regular army. Sailings from Europe have reached the total of 627,510 since November 1st.

American occupancy of German territory ended in September, 1919, when the 1st Division, with full equipment was welcomed home with a tremendous demonstration.

How the occupied territory was administered under American military authority is told in the *Tageblatt* of Berlin by a staff correspondent under date of March 19th:

> I was sent to an inn of the sort which is generally frequented, in times when travel is unrestricted, by those vagrants who travel around through

the country with barrel-organs and monkeys. I was not surprised to find that the room lacked not only the convenience of washing facilities but also all means of lighting and heating. Hardly had I found the bed—for it was night—when someone knocked loudly at the door and, in the name of American law, assigned me a room-mate in the person of a rural laborer, who unfortunately did not bring in the products of his cattle-culture but only the dirt and smell. This sort of entertainment is so impossible for women that they generally avoid it by passing the night in the waiting-rooms of railway stations.

When one comes to look about by daylight, it becomes apparent at once that there are three entirely distinct civilizations juxtaposed here, which, however, do not touch: the native population, the Americans, and the French. The American soldiers are forbidden to have any dealings with the population. This restriction applies all the way from higher headquarters to the smallest town in the occupied area. It cannot be so well enforced naturally in urban districts, but is maintained very strictly in Coblenz, especially as it applies to the daughters of the land. Nowhere does one see an American speaking with a German. Should an officer be seen on the street with a German woman, he would immediately be stopped by the American military police, members of which are stationed, armed with clubs, with prodigal frequency on every street-corner.

Strange as is the effect of this restriction—it does not exist in the region occupied by French troops and was not in force with the German troops either during the war—it originates not in any feeling inimical toward us, but from a peculiarity in the American way of thinking. The Americans require from the Germans no manifestations of submissiveness or of affection; the population is allowed to express its feelings and opinions in so far as they are not unfriendly to the Americans. They do not censor the press except to this extent. On the other hand, they see no occasion for assuming any other attitude toward us than one of sober and unemotional detachment. The motto which governs their dealings and punctuates their speech is: "It is war." Therefore, there should be no fraternizing. In solicitiously attempting to restrain all fraternization, they are influenced in no small degree by the dread of being corrupted with Bolshevistic ideas, especially in view of unmistakable rumors which have arrived from Belgium, rumors indicating that the danger of extreme radicalism is imminent.

As was said before, the American authorities firmly restrain all social relations with the native girls, although they might not be considered a political factor. The Americans know what complications of family life would result if they should allow 15,000 idle and strapping soldiers to kick over the traces in a city of 60,000 inhabitants. In order to avoid entanglement themselves, and also in order to guard the civil population from developments which would not be quite in accord with their views of sexual ethics, the American authorities have proclaimed the permanent celibacy of the soldiers.

When a lieutenant, intoxicated by the heavy Rhenish-Hessian wine, for which he had a predilection, and also by the beauty of the German barmaid, made harmless amatory advances to her in an officers' casino, he was punished for it by the loss of his rank as an officer. The commander of his regiment sent apologies to the management of the establishment on account of his officer's behavior, and informed the proprietor of the punishment.

To the disappointment of many who had entertained visions of America as a fairy, bearing a horn overflowing with butter, eggs, and hams, the Americans show themselves very parsimonious with regard to food. Even the common soldier lives like a first-class passenger on an ocean liner. He receives, twice or three times a day, meat which does not need to be disguised in a thin soup of vegetables and potatoes, but which is served up with gravy in good, honest fashion. When he has sated his appetite with luscious steaks of beef and has swallowed his cup of coffee with milk and sugar to speed digestion, he is at liberty, especially if he is an officer, to buy every day a pound of the finest chocolate or a can of jam at the price of four marks.

This prerogative is the more exercised because a private receives a daily wage of eight marks and a lieutenant of forty marks as his *dolce far niente.* (The writer apparently regards the wage as sufficient to banish all pecuniary cares). But woe to the soldier who gives or sells a portion of his superfluity, and thrice woe to the civilian who accepts or buys said portion! A mere cigarette, received by a mendicant, may entail prosecution for "unauthorized possession of American property." There have been twenty-three convictions, out of sixty-six cases, for this crime between January 5th and January 28th, according to published accounts of American judicial proceedings at Coblenz. Such an offense must be atoned by a fine of five hundred to one thousand marks; whereas, for the purchase of American property, the minimum punishment is three months imprisonment.

More astounding than the severity of these punishments is the system of espionage used by the American executive authorities. Coblenz teems with gentlemen who are nothing other than decoys. With tempting bacon they hunt the street, striving to detect some impoverished caterer in crime; they also practice their noble arts with the utmost success in spying on dealers in alcoholic beverages. Alcohol is an ill friend to the Americans and they all have reason to fight against it. The sale of ardent spirits is prohibited and the sale of wine and beer is limited to the periods from twelve to two o'clock and from five to seven o'clock. It is distinctly their own business to determine how they wish to guard their men from the depredations of alcohol. There can be no objection if patrols of officers make the rounds of public houses as coffee inspectors to discover whether the coffee is genuine or is mixed with brandy. But we cannot quite understand why they use secret agents to entrap Germans also in the enjoyment of their bitters.

No excess of delicacy prevents the Americans, moreover, from informing themselves by extremely minute questions, even in cases of small industries, about the nature and the extent of production, the fixing of prices, the exportations, and other important details. But the Americans excel all their Allies in their good nature: their attitude toward us is not at all chauvinistic. When they invested the city, they entered without any theatrical demonstration, demanded no submissive reception from the city government, and regarded arrogant proclamations as entirely superfluous. They all sought to occupy their own quarters as soon as possible without unnecessary display, to wash themselves, and to attend to sleeping accommodations. The French soon presented a striking contrast. When a detachment of them came to Coblenz, they made haste to find the monument of William I and to run derisively around it, as though possessed, blowing their trumpets. This scene amused the Americans vastly. The American officers quite properly punish premeditated affronts; but it is not in harmony with their manner of thinking or acting to exact more deference than accrues to men who exercise neutral control. They are rather inclined to protect the Germans from discomfiture by the French.

CHAPTER XXXIX

Aftermath of the War

AMERICA'S tremendous vitality was never revealed to better advantage than in her recovery from the stress and burden of the World War. A sacrificial spirit was born in the millions who were banded in America's fighting forces of land, sea and air, and in the hundred million men, women and children, who enrolled themselves back of the fighting lines in the victorious effort to advance democratic ideals over the earth. The cost in lives and in money was heavy, but it was light in proportion to that sustained by those who had battled years before America entered the conflict. The loss to the nation in deaths from wounds and disease and in the number of wounded men returned to America has been told. The financial burden laid upon future generations would have been staggering to any other but the American people. Resolutely they set themselves to the task of entering into the new international relations thrust upon them by their entrance into the great copartnership of peaceful nations.

One of the first details of finance to be cleared up during the period of reconstruction was the sale to France of all the equipment and property of the American Expeditionary Forces on French soil. The original cost of this vast store of supplies, locomotives, motor trucks and other equipment was more than one billion dollars. The special liquidation commission sent by the American Government to France to arrange for the sale of this property placed a value upon it of $749,000,000. That value was placed on August 1, 1919. A deduction of twenty-five per cent was allowed to cover the cost of selling the equipment in small lots by the French Government, reducing the estimated value to $562,000,000. The French Government offered to pay $400,000,000 for all these stores and after considerable negotiation this proposition was accepted by America. It was estimated that the labor of 40,000 men for seven months would be required to sort, salvage and dispose of the property. The sale was consummated August 28, 1919. Payment was made in ten-year gold bonds bearing five per cent interest from August 1, 1920.

The problems of demobilization extended of course both to material and to men. Immense quantities of material had been accumulated in cantonments and storehouses. Had this mass been thrown upon the market by the government, immediate demoralization of industry would have resulted. To prevent this manufacturers in various lines arranged with the government to purchase and pool these commodities. In this way they came to market little by little. The plan prevented the shut-down of thousands of factories. Airplanes, automobiles, plumbing supplies and numerous other lines of manufacture were safeguarded.

The problem of re-employment of soldiers was one that confronted all countries. Various plans were tried, some nations adopting the expedient of slow demobilization. The idea back of this process was the gradual and certain absorption of the demobilized men back into the industries from which they came. The protests against this scheme came in avalanches. The soldiers demanded immediate return to their homes and this demand was intensified by the tremendous pressure to the same end exerted by the families of the soldiers. America's policy was one of speedy demobilization. At first, thousands of jobless soldiers walked the streets, but the Knights of Columbus, the Jewish Welfare Board, the Y. M. C. A., the Salvation Army and other civilian agencies added their efforts to those of the government, with the result that re-employment advanced faster and more satisfactorily in America than in any other belligerent nation.

Another serious problem was the adjustment of labor conditions affecting women who had taken men's places during the war. This was an economic question of great gravity. Through the wisdom of American women, be it recorded that the fears of friction and of grave difficulty that had been expressed concerning this condition were never realized. Hundreds of thousands of women who had gone into business and industry continued their work, but the amazing growth of new industries absorbed this additional labor.

It was natural that there should be a labor ferment following the war. Bolshevism had radiated from "Red" Russia and its spores were carried to America. Strikes and labor disturbances featured the year 1919. The Socialist Party split in twain into moderates and radicals, the latter espousing the principles put forward by Lenine and Trotsky in Bolshevist Russia. It was a period of adjustments of violent reactions on the part of both capital and labor.

The question of food and the high cost of living as it affected food extended throughout the world. The United States Government sent to Europe Dr. Alonzo E. Taylor of Philadelphia, head of the Division of Research of the United States Food Administration who made a detailed report upon the conditions found by him overseas.

"There are millions of people in Europe who have no food," he said, "and who look to the United States to supply it. Growing of crops abroad is curtailing pending territorial adjustments. Governments will not spend millions of dollars for farm implements, even if they can obtain them, to be used on land that may shortly be given to a neighboring nation.

"The great defect in central Europe today, indeed, in Europe as a whole, is the failure of production. Loss of man-power is not responsible for the condition, since in all countries unemployed men are drawing out-of-work stipends. The causes of the reduced productivity may be summarized as scarcity of coal, raw material and food, depreciation of currency, disinclination on the part of labor to work and loss of initiative and enterprise on the part of capital."

Discussing his work overseas, Dr. Taylor said he belonged to one of the optimistic groups of students of European affairs, particularly with respect to their relations to America. Then he said:

"The treaty with Germany being signed and ratified by Germany, central Europe is now most concerned with the harvest.

"After the treaties with Austria, Bulgaria, Turkey and Hungary have been concluded, there will remain only the problem of the relations of western Europe and the world with inscrutable Russia—inscrutable because of the fact that the future Russia lies in the psychology of the Russian peasant. Just as the problem of importation of food was uppermost in the minds of all the peoples between the Baltic and Adriatic Seas during the six months after the armistice was signed, so the results of the harvest are now uppermost, since it is felt that the problems of economic and industrial reorganization cannot be undertaken until the relations of the food supply during the coming year are known.

"Poland is in a fairly hopeful situation, despite the great scarcity of work animals. The crops being harvested promise to cover about three-quarters of the requirements, leaving, however, for import something like thirty million bushels of bread grains. American cotton is now reaching Poland.

"There is a particularly difficult racial problem in Poland, within whose present boundaries are contained one-half the Jews of the world. These are divided in two groups, those who desire assimilation with the Polish State and those who wish to remain foreigners outside of citizenship and enjoying special rights as foreigners.

"Finland and the East Baltic States are in a condition of chaos. In Finland the cause is largely finance; in the East Baltic States the causes are racial and geographical.

"Czecho-Slovakia is in good condition. Within the boundaries of the new republic are large resources in coal and metals. Prague has large textile industries that are now operating on American cotton.

"Roumania has also been carried to the present harvest upon American and British foodstuffs. The present Roumanian boundaries correspond fully to the distribution of her people. The Germans had robbed the country in a merciless fashion.

"The kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes is harvesting a good crop which will give them an exportable surplus. Serbia is busily engaged in the rehabilitation of the railways destroyed by the Austrians. The northern areas, passed to the new state from the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, were practically self-supporting. Serbia has been fed since the armistice by the American relief administration.

"Austria is in very bad shape. The little republic has a population of a little over seven million, of which two and one-quarter are in Vienna. Of these, however, one and one-quarter million are non-Germans, and these may be expected to emigrate to the surrounding national states to which they belong. But with a population of six million and a capital of one million, Austria will not be self-supporting agriculturally.

"Austria has been fed since Christmas, to the extent of three-quarters of her food supply, on credits extended by the United Kingdom, France and Italy. She will have to be fed during the next year on credits extended by somebody.

"The present Hungary with a population of nine or ten millions represents practically all of the Magyars of the previous Hungary, living in a concentrated area and needs assistance after its disastrous experiment with Bolshevism.

"Bulgaria has remained outside of the field of relief, politically, economically and in every other way. Bulgaria, like 'Brer Fox,' is lying low, in the hope of escaping as lightly as possible the penalty for her responsibility and conduct in the war.

"There are nearly one hundred million of people in Central Europe. The armistice left these in political chaos, divided into new states struggling with inexperienced governments, their transportation disorganized, with scarcity of coal, great depreciation of currency, acute struggles between labor and capital, and over all the pall of war fatigue. The problem of food was the immediate problem. If they could be carried into the new harvest, this would afford time in part for their governments to become stabilized, their communications to be restored, their railways reorganized, their supply of fuel stabilized.

"This would give six months for the study of their problems of currency and for the re-establishment of industry in order that interstate commerce might be resumed. All hung upon food. The feeding of Central Europe was under the control of the Supreme Economic Council, in theory; in fact, it was organized by Herbert Hoover and executed through the American Relief Administration. The United

States has supplied three-fourths of the credit and four-fifths of the food. The amount of food supplied has represented practically a third of the food supply of the peoples concerned and has meant the difference between life and death. The food supplied was sufficient to check physical deterioration, allay social unrest, restore the confidence of the people in their future and enable the beginnings of industrial productions to be undertaken.

"In addition, the American Relief Administration has undertaken a child feeding program the same year, this representing an outright gift."

HIGH COST OF LIVING

The advance of prices was not confined to the United States or to the countries which participated in the war. It was world wide. Nor did it occur exclusively in the products required for war purposes, nor for the use of the millions engaged in the war. Practically every article entering international trade advanced in price in the country in which produced, irrespective of their proximity to the war area. Nor were prices reduced to a perceptible degree in any part of the world after the close of the war. There were, of course, a few exceptions to this general rule, but they were so few and so plainly due to peculiar conditions that they "proved the rule" that the advance was world wide and that the termination of the war did not reverse the movement or at least cause any material decline in any considerable proportion of the important articles of world production and world consumption.

The extent of the increases in world prices and their distribution to all parts of the globe irrespective of relation to the war area is illustrated by a compilation showing the 1919 prices in the country of production of the principal articles forming the international trade of the world and comparing these 1919 prices with those of the month preceding the war. In the distant Orient, in the tropical world, in the interior of Africa, Australia and South America, and in the islands of the Pacific, the prices demanded for the articles offered for exportation were far above those of the pre-war

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A PLENARY SESSION OF THE PEACE CONFERENCE

The full Conference in session at the Quai d'Orsay, Paris. In the right foreground is Marshal Foch and in the left background are Wilson, Lloyd George, Clemenceau and Balfour. In the right center is Orlando and seated under the clock is Colonel House.

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TRANSATLANTIC FLIERS

Top: American Navy Seaplane NC-4 which crossed the ocean with one stop at the Azores reaching Portugal, May 27, 1919. *Center:* The British Vickers-Vimy bombing plane which made the first non-stop flight across the Atlantic, June 16, 1919. *Bottom:* The British dirigible R-34 which flew across the Atlantic, July 6, 1919.

period, the advances ranging from 50 per cent to 100 per cent and sometimes 150 per cent.

Rice, for example, of which the United States imported about four hundred million pounds from China and Japan in 1918, cost in the country of production 7.2 cents per pound for that imported in December, 1918, as against 2.6 cents per pound for that imported in the month preceding the war, July, 1914. Nitrate of soda, drawn chiefly from Chile, for which the war demands ceased at the date of the armistice, cost in the country of production $57.40 per ton for that imported in May, 1919, against $26.65 per ton for that imported in the month preceding the war. Raw silk, of which we obtain our entire supply from China and Japan, cost in those countries an average of $6.12 per pound for the imports of the closing month of the war, and $3.84 per pound in the month preceding the war. Wood pulp bleached, chiefly from Canada and not produced in the war countries, cost in the country of production $160 per ton for the quantity imported into the United States in January, 1919, against $49 per ton for that imported in the month preceding the war. Goat skins imported from China, India, Mexico, and South America cost in those countries an average of 62.8 cents per pound for those reaching the United States in May, 1919, against 24.5 cents per pound for those imported from the same countries in the month preceding the war. Flaxseed, imported chiefly from Argentina and not an article demanded for war purposes, cost in the country of production $3 per bushel for that reaching us in January, 1919, against $1.47 per bushel for that imported in July, 1914. Mattings for floors, imported chiefly from Japan and China, cost in the countries of production 26.4 cents per square yard for the quantities reaching the United States in May, 1919, against 9.1 cents per square yard for the quantities which reached us in July, 1914. Jute, imported from India, cost in that country $172.75 per ton for the quantity imported into the United States in March, 1919, against $49.56 per ton for that imported in the month preceding the opening of the war.

Curiously too, the prices of many articles advanced without reference to the fact that the war terminated. Of the seventy-five articles named by the Department of Commerce as "Principal Articles Imported," more than one-half of those entering the United States in May, 1919, actually showed higher prices in the country of production than the prices of the same articles imported in the closing month of the war, and coming from the same country.

MONTHLY AVERAGE IMPORT PRICES OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES ENTERING THE UNITED STATES IN JULY, 1914, OCTOBER, 1918, AND MAY, 1919.

(Based on the wholesale price of articles in the markets of the countries from which imported, for unit of quantity stated.)

	Unit	1914 July	1918 October	1919 May
Macaroni, vermicelli, etc	lb.	$0.04	$0.10	$0.11
Rice	lb.	.026	.054	.06
Rice-flour, meal, etc	lb.	.678	.044	.051
Wheat	bu.	.019	1.63	1.95
Flour, wheat	bbl.	4.065	7.34	9.58
Bristles, assorted, etc	lb.	.932	1.59	1.58
Nitrate of soda	ton	26.65	44.82	57.40
Coal, bituminous	ton	2.96	5.69	5.31
Cocoa, crude	lb.	.104	.11	.114
Coffee	lb.	.111	.099	.167
Copper, pig, ingots, etc	lb.	.140	.239	.138
Cotton, raw	lb.	.147	.264	.376
Cotton, cloths, unbleached	sq. yd.	.145	.297	.253
Cotton, cloths, bleached	sq. yd.	.155	.40	.385
Cotton cloths, colored	sq. yd.	.179	.44	.434
Eggs	doz.	.155	.406	.233
Flax	ton	309.43	856.68	1,125.18
Hemp	ton	181.35	169.70	557.24
Jute and jute butts	ton	49.56	68.56	122.58
Manila	ton	204.25	376.26	310.41
Sisal grass	ton	126.66	340.39	308.08
Binding twine	lb.	.080	.223	.209
Cod, haddock, etc	lb.	.038	.088	.097
Herring	lb.	.032	.057	.058
Mackerel	lb.	.049	.130	.137
Bananas	bunch	.334	.454	.413
Currants	lb.	.039	.211	.124
Figs	lb.	.032	.102	.102
Almonds	lb.	.339	.218	.341
Peanuts	lb.	.037	.077	.079
Walnuts	lb.	.090	.442	.356
Calf skins	lb.	.253	.365	.484
Cattle hides	lb.	.184	.256	.253
Goat skins	lb.	.245	.430	.628
Sheep skins	lb.	.180	.306	.370
India rubber, crude	lb.	.465	.390	.405
Pig iron	ton	34.50	98.74	60.31
Bar iron	ton	23.61	66 00	173.92
Steel, ingots, blooms, etc	lb.	.031	.045	.117
Tin plates	lb.	0.32		.191
Matting and mats for floors	sq. yd.	.091	.185	.264
Beef, fresh	lb.	.086	.158	.180

	Unit	1914 July	1918 October	1919 May
Cheese	lb.	$ 0.164	$ 0.358	$ 0.473
Oils: olive, edible	gal.	1.27	1.78	1.85
Seeds: flaxseed or linseed	bu.	1.47	2.73	2.44
Sild, raw	lb.	3.84	6.12	5.90
Champagne	doz. qts.	16.76	26.43	19.05
Sugar, cane	lb.	.0215	.0468	.056
Tea	lb.	.198	.224	.243
Tin, in bars, blocks, etc	lb.	.348	.750	.708
Tobacco, leaf, for wrappers	lb.	1.25	2.05	1.93
Other tobacco	lb.	.467	.375	1.20
Beans	bu.	1.56	4.67	3.14
Onions	bu.	1.07	1.03	1.69
Potatoes	bu.	.814	1.09	1.05
Pulp wood	cord	7.19	9.96	9.74
Boards, deals, planks, etc	M. ft.	19.46	30.50	30.03
Wood pulp, mechanically ground	ton	16.35	26.82	25.14
Wood pulp, chemical, unbleached	ton	36.95	75.70	80.53
Wood pulp, chemical, bleached	ton	49.20	109.00	107.36
Wool, unm'f'd. class 1, clothing	lb.	.279	.545	.474
Wool, unm'f'd. class 2, combing	lb.	.244	.715	.240
Wool, unm'f'd. class 3, carpet	lb.	.167	.434	.422

THE AIR ROUTE TO EUROPE

The war gave an impetus to many lives of adventure, invention, experiment and industry. In no direction was that impulse felt with greater effect than in aerial navigation. The amazing achievements of airplanes, seaplanes and dirigibles during the war directed the attention of mankind to the possibilities of transportation through the air. Scarcely had the armistice been signed when a dramatic international race commenced for the honor of crossing the Atlantic Ocean between Europe and America.

The first airplane to achieve this adventure was the NC-4, an American tractor biplane, equipped with four Liberty motors, each of four hundred horsepower. It had a wing span of 126 feet, a hull length of fifty feet, a gasoline capacity of two thousand gallons and an average speed of eighty miles an hour, and a carrying capacity of twenty-eight thousand pounds. Its commanding officer was Lieutenant-Commander A. C. Read, U. S. N., and it was manned with five other officers of the United States Navy. The NC-4 and its sister planes NC-1 and NC-3 flew from Rockaway Beach, N. Y., bound for Halifax, N. S., on the morning of May 7th. The NC-1 and the NC-3 reached their destination the next morning at eight o'clock. The NC-4 was forced down by engine trouble and proceeded on the surface of the ocean to Shatten Bar on the Massachusetts coast, where repairs were made and the flight resumed on May 15th.

The three planes flew from Trepassy Bay, Newfoundland, whither they had flown from Halifax, about six o'clock on the evening of Friday, May 16th, bound for the Azores. The NC-1 and the NC-3, commanded respectively by Lieutenant-Commander E. L. Bellinger and Commander John H. Towers, were compelled to descend to the surface of the ocean by thick fog, but the NC-4 succeeded in flying to the harbor of Horta. Both the NC-3, which rode out a gale and reached Ponta Delgada under its own power, and the NC-1 were so badly damaged that they could not continue the flight.

The NC-4 resumed its journey on the morning of May 27th, reaching Lisbon, Portugal, that night at 9.02.

Lieutenant-Commander Read and the NC-4 flew from Lisbon headed for Plymouth on May 30th. Twice the plane was compelled to descend on account of engine trouble, first at the mouth of the Mondego River and again at Ferrol on the northern coast of Spain. At this latter port repairs were made and the NC-4 on the morning of May 31st set out on the last lap of its journey over the Bay of Biscay swooping low over the harbor of Brest where it exchanged wireless greetings with the cheering soldiers at that port of American embarkation and straight across the English Channel to the great harbor of Plymouth, where it dropped lightly at rest at 2.26 o'clock in the afternoon of May 31st, completing the first flight over the Atlantic Ocean in the history of the world.

A gallant attempt was made by the United States Navy dirigible C-5 to cross the Atlantic but this came to disaster on the afternoon of May 15, 1919, when after a successful flight from Montauk, N. Y., to Halifax, N. S., the C-5 burst its moorings, was blown out over the ocean and destroyed.

Harry Hawker, an Australian aviator, and Lieutenant-Commander MacKenzie Grieve, of the British Navy, made a spectacular but unsuccessful effort for a non-stop flight over the Atlantic on May 18, 1919. Because of stoppage in the water filter to the feed pipe, the Sopwith plane in which the

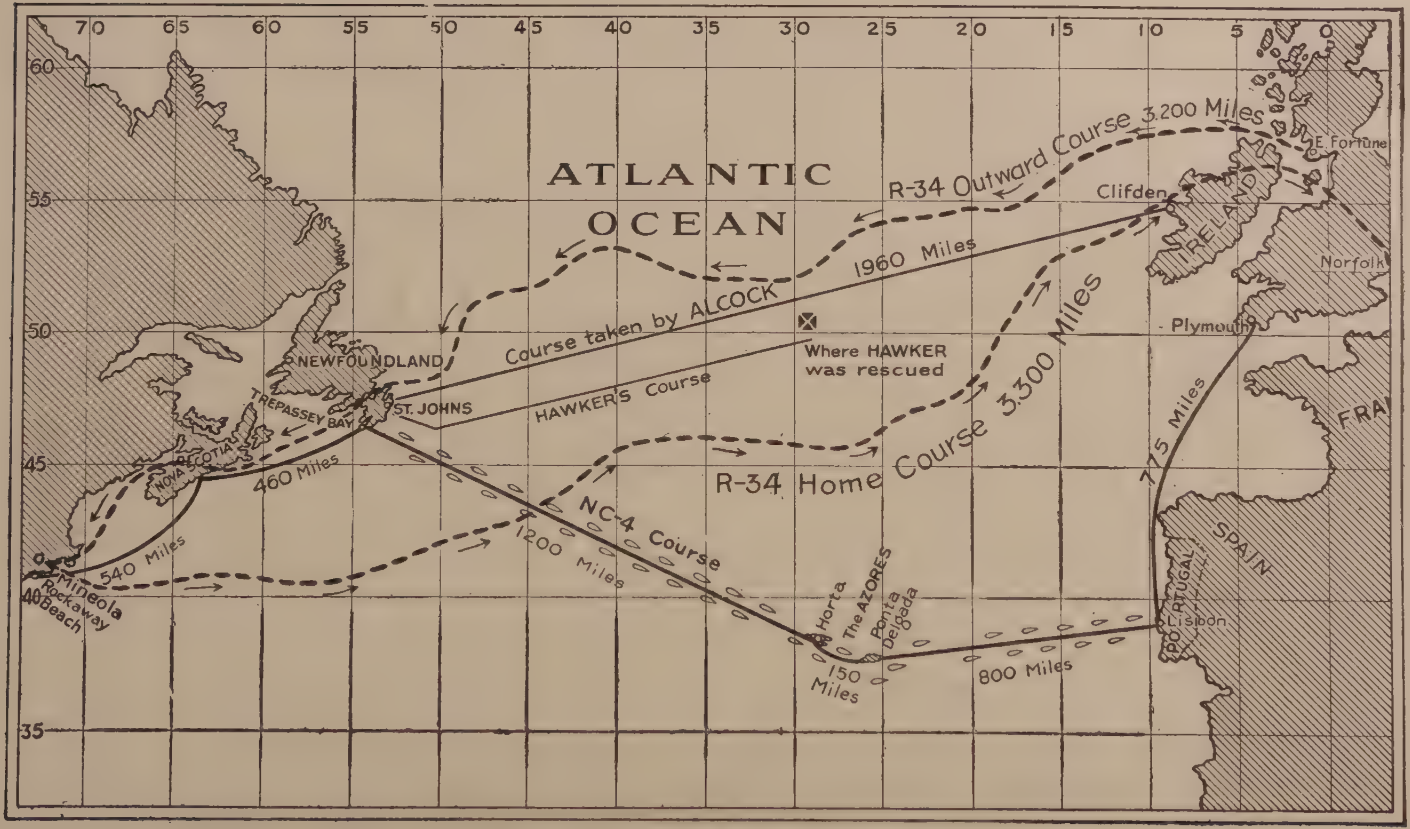


Chart of the Transatlantic Fliers

This shows graphically the course of the transatlantic aviators.

attempt was made was obliged to descend to the ocean on May 19th, where Hawker and Grieve were picked up by the Danish steamer Mary.

The first nonstop flight over the Atlantic was accomplished June 14–15, 1919, by Captain John Alcock, an Englishman, and Lieutenant Arthur W. Brown, an American, in a Vickers-Vimy plane. The start was made at 4.28 P. M. Greenwich time from Newfoundland and the plane landed at Clifden, Ireland, at 8.40 A. M. June 15th, a trip of 1980 miles accomplished in sixteen hours and twelve minutes.

The first dirigible to fly over the Atlantic was the British rigid airship R-34. This transatlantic pioneer left East Fortune, Scotland, at 2 A. M. July 2d, and after a flight of approximately seven thousand miles via Newfoundland, arrived at Roosevelt Field, L. I., at 9 A. M. Sunday, July 6th. The return trip to England commenced just before midnight of July 9th and ended at Pulham, England, the trip consuming seventy-four hours and six minutes.

PROHIBITION

One of the consequences of the World War was the sweeping prohibition of the sale of alcoholic beverages which became effective July 1, 1919, when the entire country was placed upon a prohibition basis until the legal consummation of peace. Congress had passed, the President had signed and a sufficient number of State Legislatures had ratified the constitutional amendment forbidding the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors after January 16, 1920. Opposition to both wartime prohibition and the constitutional amendment was widepsread and powerful but the transition was accomplished without violent disturbance.

ARMY ORDNANCE ASSOCIATION

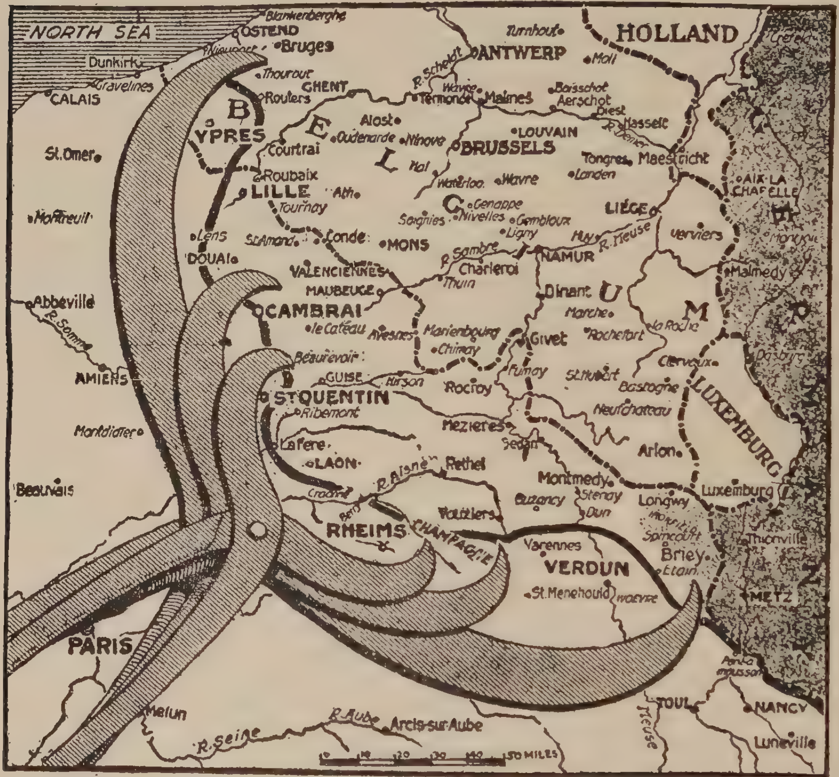
The ten thousand technical experts who were recruited, either in uniform or in shop or office, to mobilize the nation's industries for the conduct of the war, were organized in 1919 into a solid, working body prepared to meet any emergency which may arise and to conserve the "know how" which it took the nation nine months to obtain so that the millions of young men put into the field could be properly equipped to win the World War.

This organization was the "Army Ordnance Association" and its founding committee consisted of a group of the prominent men representing American industry who supplied the technical knowledge which made America's rapid mobilization of resources the wonder of the world. The object was to keep in close touch the men qualified to take care of special branches of ordnance, engineering or production and to stimulate their interest in these specialties so that what they learned about them during the war would not be forgotten. The organization was by ordnance districts and cross-sectioned into specialized committees.

The founding committee of this organization was Herbert W. Alden, vice-president of the Timken-Detroit Axle Company; Waldo C. Bryant, president Bryant Electric Company; C. L. Harrison, president Missouri Mutual Life Insurance Company; James C. Heckman, general manager of the Larkin Company; Robert P. Lamont, president American Steel Foundries; Bascom Little, building contractor of Cleveland, Ohio; Samuel McRoberts, vice-president National City Bank; Alton S. Miller, vice-president Bartlett, Howard Company, Baltimore; David C. Seagrave, vice-president Pacific Coast Shipbuilding Company; John R. Simpson, formerly of E. A. Filence Company, of Boston; William C. Spruance, director Explosives Manufacturing Department for E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Company; Guy E. Tripp, chairman board of directors Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company; Charles Eliot Warren, president Lincoln National Bank of New York, was acting treasurer of the association, and Major John H. Van Deventer, acting secretary.

Out of the maelstrom of war and the storms of radicalism following the war, America emerged serene, possessed of greater vitality and a greater determination to spread the gospel of human liberty than ever before. Millions who had been impoverished in foreign lands and who were fearful of radical experiments that were being thrust upon them were eager to make their homes in America. Had the doors of naturalization and of immigration remained open, immediately after the war it is probable that at least ten million persons would have come to America. The peoples of the world had learned to look to America as the home of freedom, the land where hope might blossom into prosperity and happiness.

America sheathed the sword it had drawn in the cause of world freedom. The world had seen that the sword was keen and swift. It had seen also that the sword was not drawn in haste and was gladly restored to its scabbard. Within the brief space of time when the sword was in action there came to the world a realization of American power and of American purpose that redounded to the glory of a nation peacefully minded but sternly resolved upon the right when it had entered a conflict between right and wrong.



How the German Armies were Pinched Out of France and Belgium

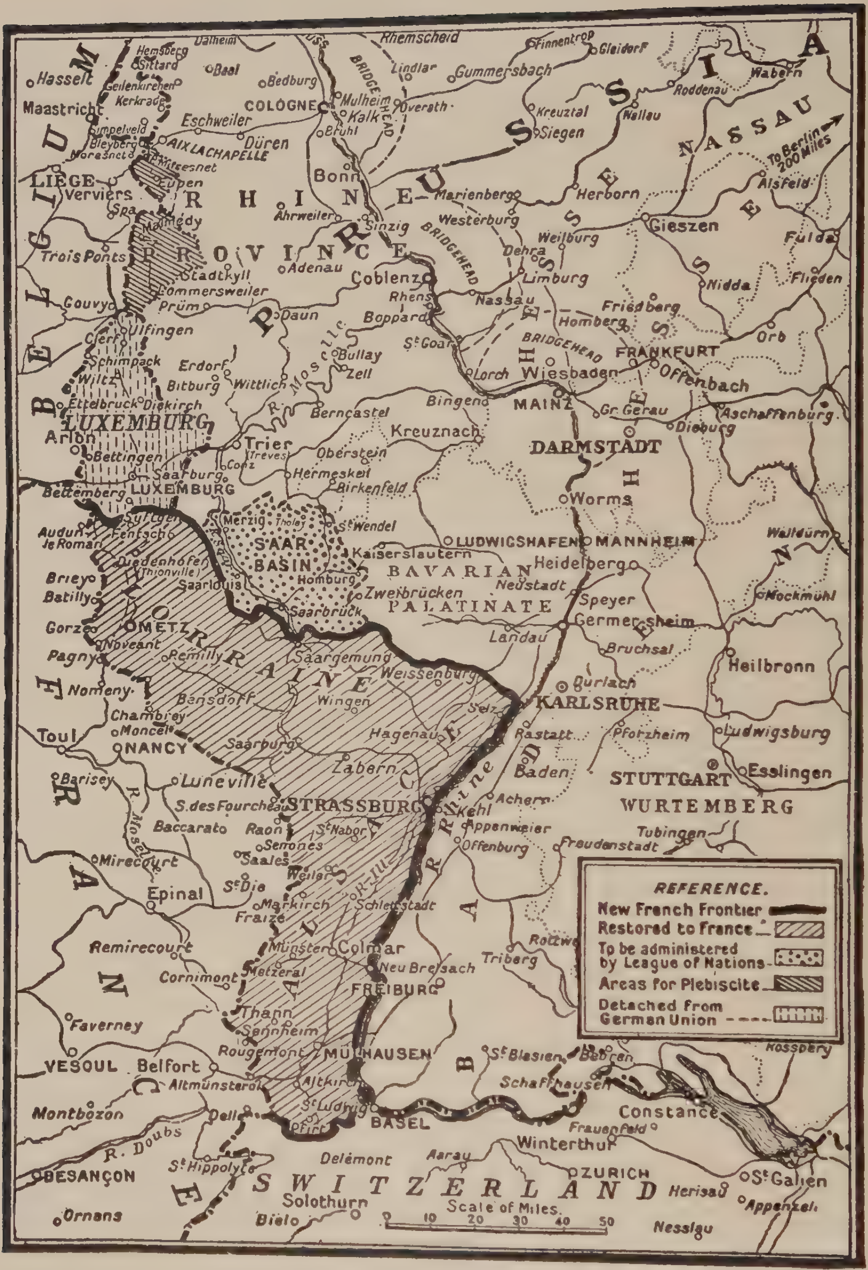
CHAPTER XL

THE TREATY OF PEACE WITH GERMANY

THE clock of history tolled the beginning of a new era when at 3.00 P. M. on Saturday, June 28, 1919, the treaty of peace, signalizing the destruction of Germany's military autocracy was signed. No more significant act had been consummated by America since the execution of the Peace Treaty that ended the Civil War. The peace which ended the Revolutionary War gave birth to the democratic ideals embodied in the United States of America. The treaty that brought the Civil War to an end made certain the preservation of that democracy. The treaty of Versailles extended the ideals and principles of true democracy throughout the world into nations whose age-long oppression had held struggling millions under the heel of tyranny.

The setting which surrounded the ceremony of the signing the treaty of Versailles befitted the sacred occasion. Into the noble avenues and wide spaces surrounding the famous Place d'Armes of Versailles throngs had come through the mists of a threatening morning. Sunshine dissipated the clouds by noon and gleamed upon the accoutrements of eleven regiments of French cavalry and infantry. Through this avenue of heroic poilus in horizon blue and the human embankments of eager sightseers, the plenipotentiaries, delegates and honor guests poured in an endless stream of automobiles, to be saluted as they reached the broad marble stairway leading to the Queen's Apartment and the Hall of Peace which opened upon the historic Hall of Mirrors. German delegates were admitted to the Hall of Mirrors through a separate entrance, a circumstance which angered some of the Germans.

A special honor was paid by the huge throng to General Foch, Premier Clemenceau, President Wilson, General Pershing and Premier Lloyd George.



Righting the Wrong Done to France in 1871

In accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Peace, Alsace and Lorraine were restored to France; the Saar Basin was taken out of German control for fifteen years; Luxemburg ceased to form part of the German Zollverein; Eupen and Malmedy were given to Belgium.

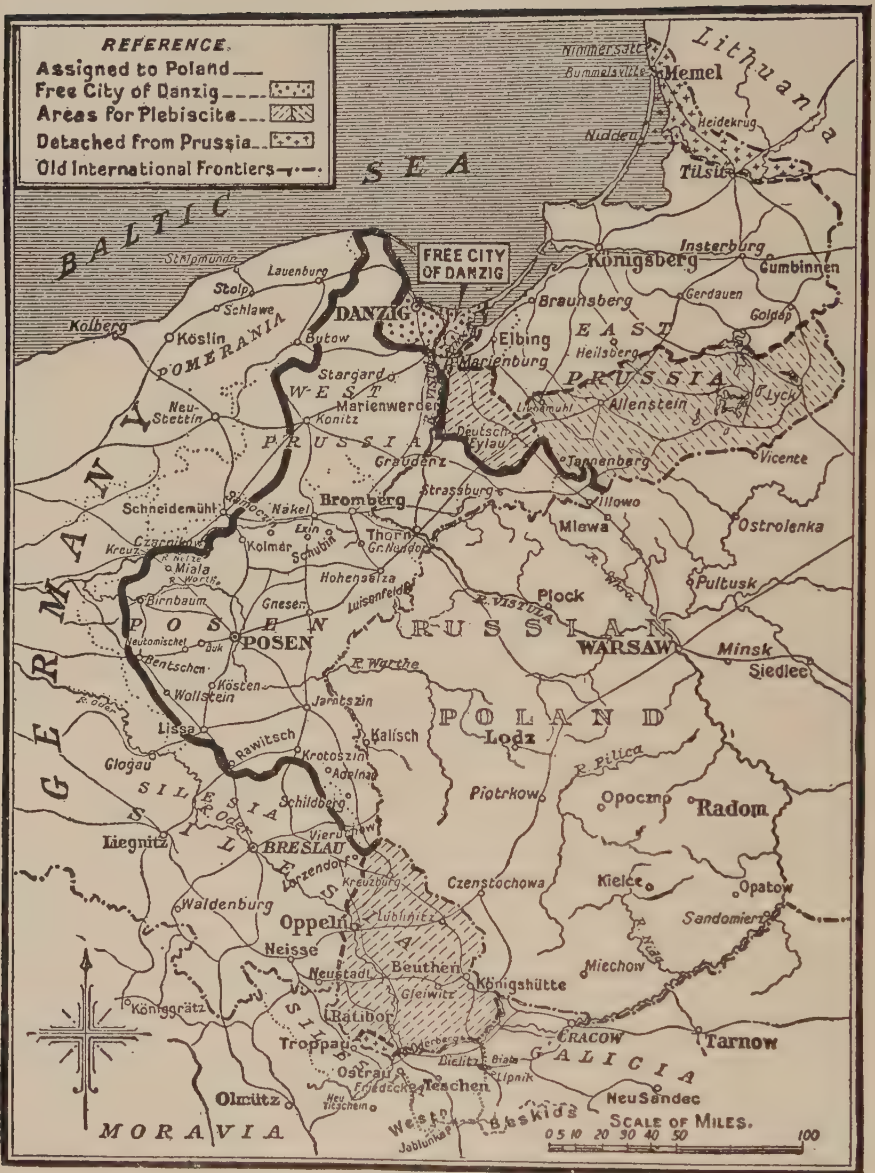
It was sheer justice that the document which destroyed German imperial autocracy should be signed in the very hall where the German Empire was born and commenced its ruthless being. In that same Hall of Mirrors forty-nine years before at the dictation of Bismarck, the Iron Chancellor, President Thiers had been compelled to sign the terms of a crushing defeat. Along the back wall of the mirrored chamber four hundred seats had been placed for guests of honor and along the right wall were an equal number of places for representatives of newspapers throughout the civilized world. The peace table was a huge hollow rectangle with an open side facing the windows looking out over the throng.

Three dramatic incidents slightly delayed the proceedings. These were the spirited but unavailing protests of the German delegates, the flat refusal of the representatives of the Chinese Republic to attend the ceremony because of concessions granted to Japan in Shantung by the Peace Conference, and the solemn protest of General Jan Christian Smuts of the South African Peace Delegation that some provisions of the treaty were out of harmony with the peaceful temper which should have animated all the signatories.

Just before three o'clock struck, forty-five wounded soldiers, fifteen each from the American, French and British armies entered the hall, took their places in the embrasures of the wide windows. Premier Clemenceau gave a human touch to the scene by going quickly to each of the wounded soldiers of France and expressing his regret for the sufferings they had undergone and his joy at the glory that had come to them.

It was seven minutes past three o'clock when the German delegates Dr. Hermann Müller, German Secretary for Foreign Affairs, and Dr. Johannes Bell, Colonial Secretary, came into the hall. They had been preceded a few minutes earlier by a group of correspondents for German newspapers and magazines. They took seats between the Japanese delegation on their right and the Brazilians on their left.

The ceremony of signing the treaty was of the simplest character. Premier Clemenceau, as president of the Peace Conference, speaking in French, said:



THE RE-ESTABLISHMENT OF POLAND

Germany's greatest losses in territory and population were sustained in the east. By the terms of the Peace Treaty the independence of Poland was recognized and Germany ceded to that state Posen and part of Silesia (about 28,500 square miles; population, 8,440,000) as well as a part of East Prussia. Plebiscites are to be taken in certain areas. Danzig is made a free city under the protection of the League of Nations.

> The session is open. The allied and associated powers on one side and the German Reich on the other side have come to an agreement on the conditions of peace. The text has been completed, drafted, and the President of the Conference has stated in writing that the text that is about to be signed now is identical with the two hundred copies that have been delivered to the German delegation. The signatures will be given now, and they amount to a solemn undertaking faithfully and loyally to execute the conditions embodied by this treaty of peace. I now invite the delegates of the German Reich to sign the treaty.

For a few moments silence that was both dramatic and tense held the throng. Then without a word, the German delegates arose, moved to the signatory table and placed upon the treaty the signatures attesting Germany's abject surrender.

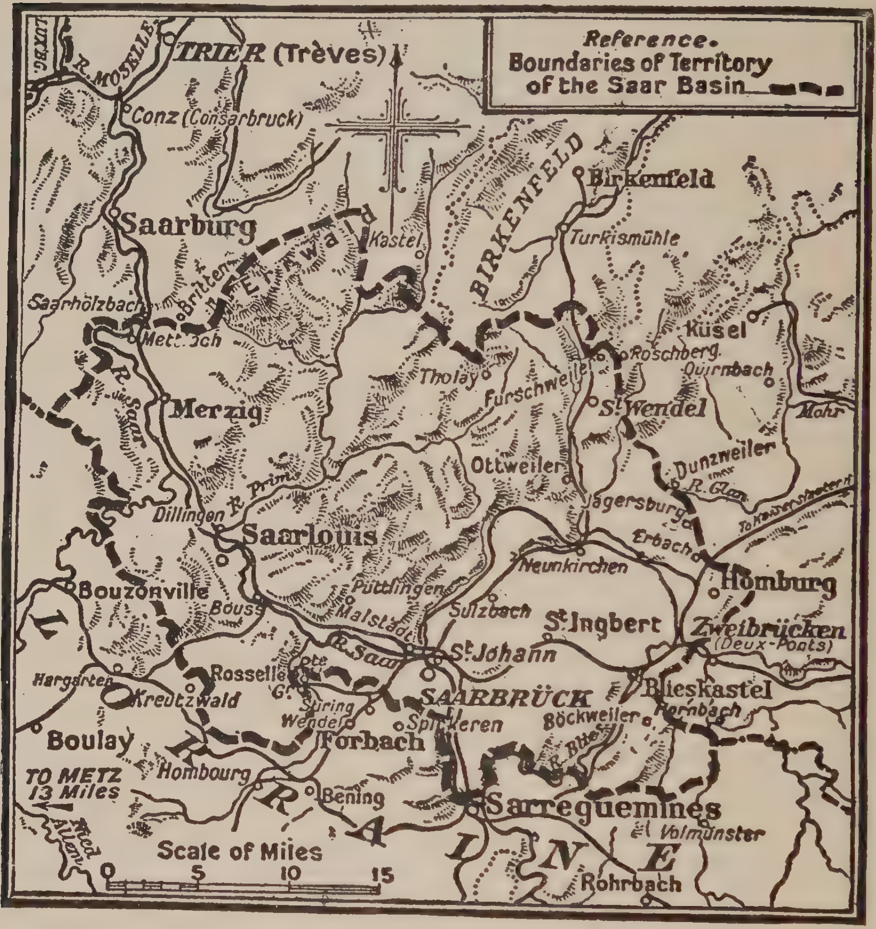
President Wilson, who outranked in power and position all the delegates to the Peace Conference, was the first to sign after the Germans. The other American delegates followed President Wilson. Then came Premier Lloyd George and the British delegation, Premier Clemenceau and the French delegates, Baron Saionji and his fellow Japanese delegates and the representatives of the smaller powers.

Scarcely had the function ended with the signing of the last name when the German representatives, accompanied by their suite left the hall by the separate exit. No one rose as they left the room. They passed in silence through walls of stern set faces. No aggression met them, yet everywhere were walls of implacable starkness and hostility.

Simultaneous with the signing of the treaty, President Wilson cabled an address announcing that fact to the American people. He said:

> MY FELLOW-COUNTRYMEN: The treaty of peace has been signed. If it is ratified and acted upon in full and sincere execution of its terms it will furnish the charter for a new order of affairs in the world. It is a severe treaty in the duties and penalties it imposes upon Germany; but it is severe only because great wrongs done by Germany are to be righted and repaired; it imposes nothing that Germany cannot do; and she can regain her rightful standing in the world by the prompt and honorable fulfillment of its terms.
>
> And it is much more than a treaty of peace with Germany. It liberates great peoples who have never before been able to find the way to liberty. It ends, once for all an old and intolerable order under which small

groups of selfish men could use the peoples of great empires to serve their ambition for power and dominion. It associates the free governments of the world in a permanent league in which they are pledged to use their united power to maintain peace by maintaining right and justice.



THE SAAR BASIN

In accordance with Section IV of the Peace Treaty, Germany ceded to France the coal mines situated in the Saar Basin, and renounced in favor of the League of Nations the government of this territory. At the end of fifteen years the inhabitants of the Saar Basin shall be called upon to indicate the sovereignty under which they desire to be placed.

It makes international law a reality supported by imperative sanctions. It does away with the right of conquest and rejects the policy of annexation and substitutes a new order under which backward nations—populations which have not yet come to political consciousness and peoples who are ready for independence but not yet quite prepared to dispense with protection and guidance—shall no more be subjected to the domination and exploitation of a stronger nation, but shall be put under the friendly direction and afforded the helpful assistance of governments which undertake to be responsible to the opinion of mankind in the execution of their task by accepting the direction of the League of Nations.

It recognizes the inalienable rights of nationality, the rights of minorities and the sanctity of religious belief and practice. It lays the basis for conventions which shall free the commercial intercourse of the world from unjust and vexatious restrictions and for every sort of international co-operation that will serve to cleanse the life of the world and facilitate its common action in beneficent service of every kind. It furnishes guarantees such as were never given or even contemplated for the fair treatment of all who labor at the daily tasks of the world.

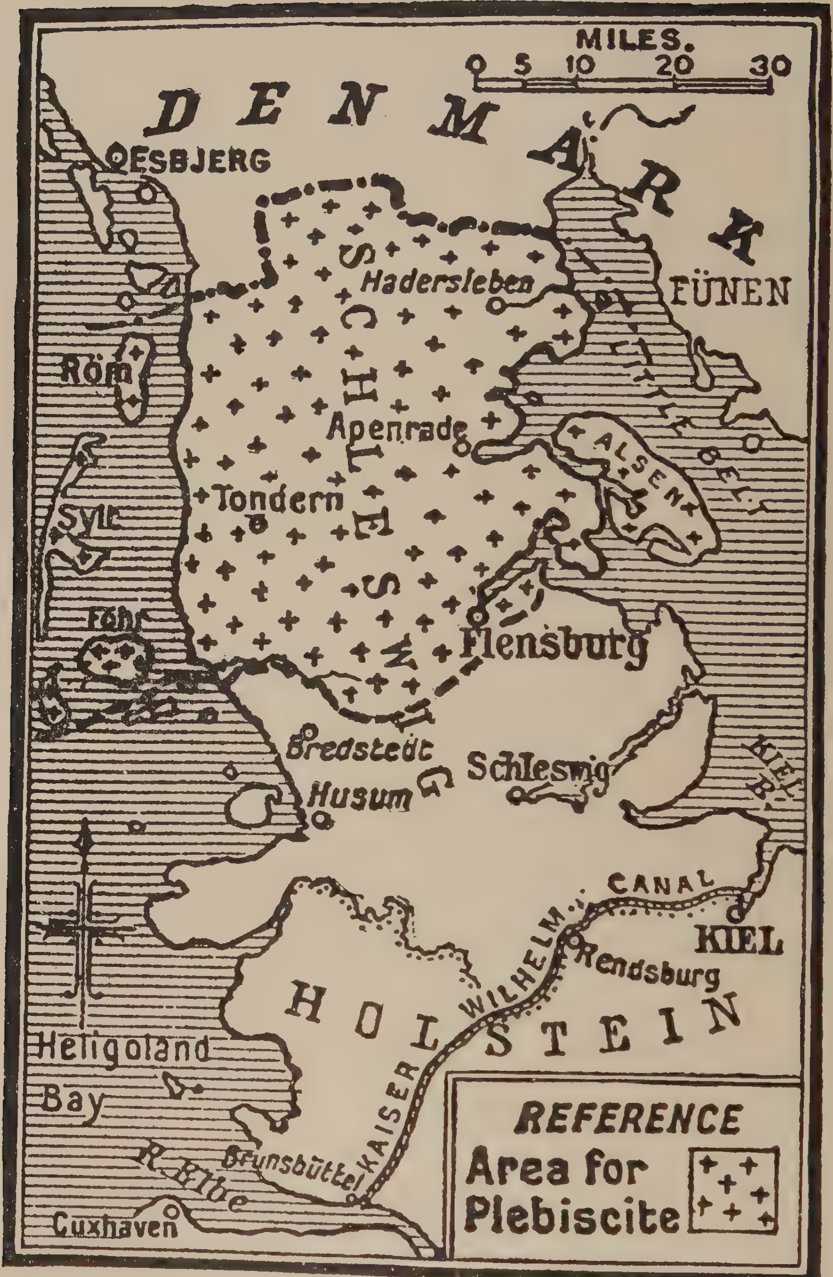
It is for this reason that I have spoken of it as a great charter for a new order of affairs. There is ground here for deep satisfaction, universal reassurance, and confident hope.

Included in the treaty of peace was the constitution of the League of Nations, the purpose of which was the prevention of future war. Around this constitution raged violent discussions in America and Europe. Particular objections were made to the following clauses of the treaty:

Article 10, which obligated the members of the League to preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence of all members of the League. (In the view of some United States Senators this took the war-making power out of the hands of Congress and transferred it to the League of Nations.)

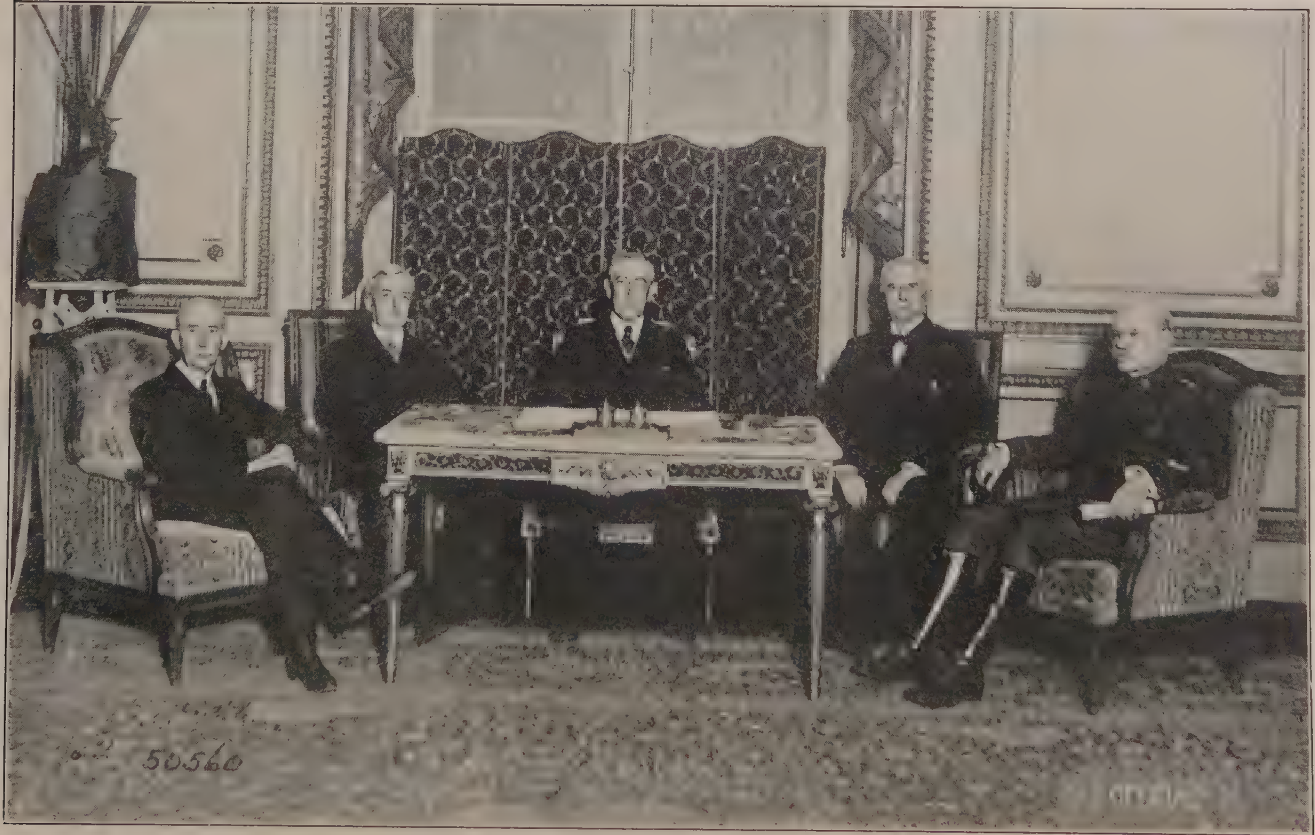
Article 21, which read: "Nothing in this covenant shall be deemed to affect the validity of international engagements, such as treaties of arbitration or regional understandings like the Monroe Doctrine, for securing the maintenance of peace." (The objections to this clause in the American Senate were on the grounds that the Monroe Doctrine was neither an "international engagement" nor a "regional understanding.")

Articles 156 to 158, which transferred to Japan the German rights in Shantung. (It was understood that Japan had given a verbal promise to eventually restore these rights to China, but some American senators insisted that the treaty should provide for this restoration. Because of these clauses,



SCHLESWIG—GERMAN OR DANISH?

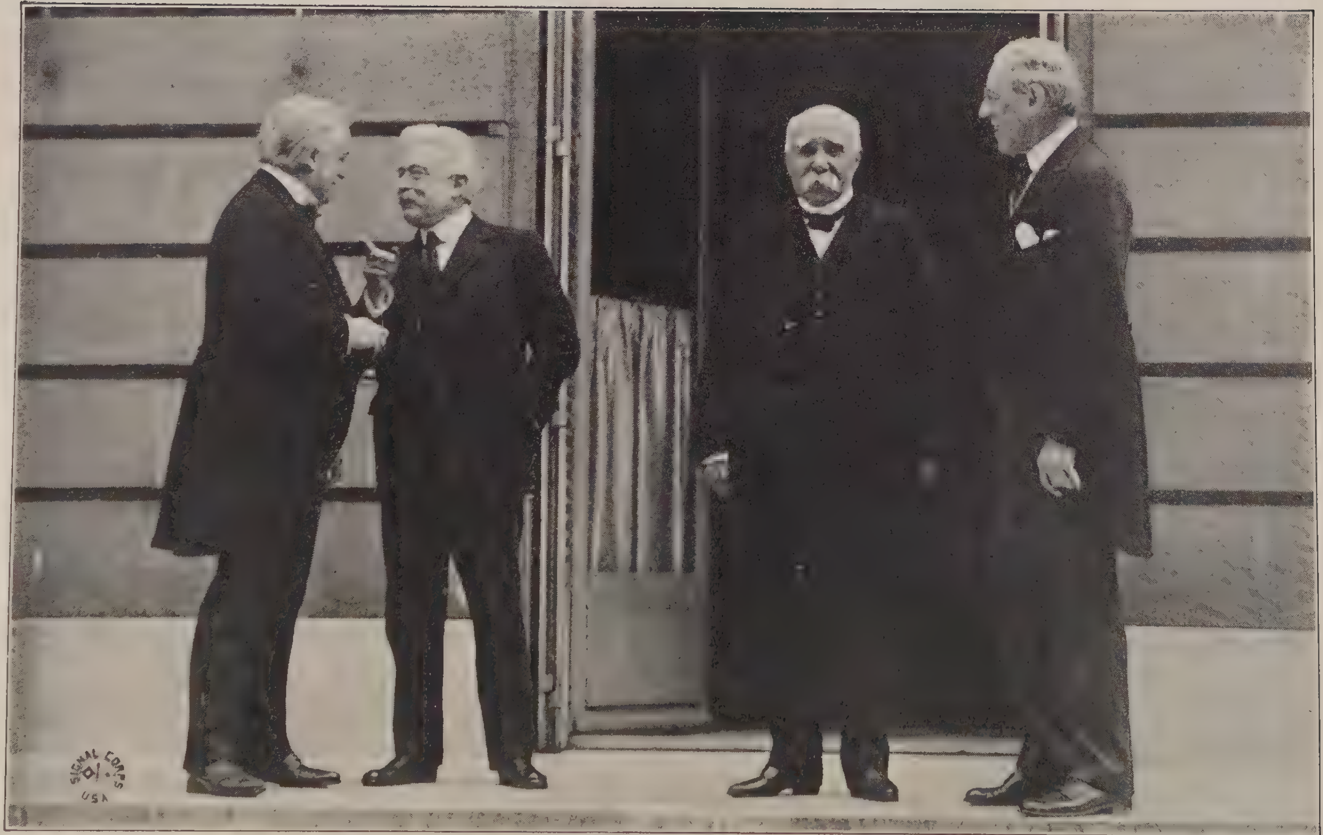
The new frontier between Germany and Denmark is to be fixed in conformity with the wishes of the inhabitants. The map indicates the zone in Schleswig where the plebiscite is to be taken. This zone is placed temporarily under the authority of an International Commission.



U. S. Official Photograph.

THE AMERICAN PEACE COMMISSION

From left to right: Colonel E. M. House, Robert Lansing, Secretary of State of the United States, President Wilson, Henry White, General Tasker H. Bliss.



U. S. Official Photograph.

THE FOUR FATES

The famous Council of Four of the Peace Conference which decided all major questions with regard to the Treaty. From right to left: President Wilson, Premier Clemenceau of France, Premier Orlando of Italy, Prime Minister Lloyd George of Great Britain. Photograph taken at the Paris "White House," 11 Place des Etats-Unis, May 27, 1919.

the delegates from the Chinese Republic at the Versailles conference refused to sign the treaty of peace.)

The treaty of peace with Germany included the following:

> Surrender of the Kaiser and other officials for trial; restoration of Alsace-Lorraine; internationalization of the Sarre Basin for fifteen years, France to be ceded the coal mines therein; internationalization of Danzig; cession to Belgium of Moresnet and districts of Eupen and Malmedy; cession to Czecho-Slovakia of Upper Silesia; cession of Upper Silesia to Poland, with plebiscites in certain districts; cession to Allies of Memel; cession to Poland of most of Posen and portions of West Prussia and Pomerania west of the Vistula, and of West Prussia east of the Vistula, plebiscites to be taken in certain cases; creation of three zones in Schleswig, nationality to be settled by self-determination; recognition of independence of Austria, that independence to be inalienable; renunciation of all rights outside of Europe; reduction of army to one hundred thousand by March 31, 1920, conscription to be abolished; all forts fifty kilometers east of the Rhine to be dismantled; allied occupation of parts of Germany for fifteen years, or until reparation is made; reduction of navy to six battleships, six light cruisers, twelve cruisers and twelve torpedo boats, without submarines, and a personnel of not over fifteen thousand men; all other war vessels to be surrendered or destroyed; Helgoland forts to be demolished; Kiel Canal to be opened to all nations; Germany's fourteen submarine cables to be surrendered; no air forces permitted with the military or naval services; full responsibility accepted for all damages caused during war, initial payment to be 20,000,000,000 marks, the Inter-Allied Reparation Commission to make a final determination of the total due from Germany before May 1, 1921.

The Covenant of the League of Nations was recognized in Europe as an American policy, and indeed it was due to President Wilson that the League became an essential part of the great treaty. Because of its vital interest to Americans the full text of the covenant is given here.

THE COVENANT OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

THE HIGH CONTRACTING PARTIES,

In order to promote international co-operation and to achieve international peace and security

by the acceptance of obligations not to resort to war,

by the prescription of open, just and honourable relations between nations,

by the firm establishment of the understandings of international law as the actual rule of conduct among Governments, and by the maintenance of justice and a scrupulous respect for all treaty obligations in the dealings of organised peoples with one another,

Agree to this Covenant of the League of Nations.

ARTICLE 1

The original Members of the League of Nations shall be those of the Signatories which are named in the Annex to this Covenant and also such of those other States named in the Annex as shall accede without reservation to this Covenant. Such accession shall be effected by a Declaration deposited with the Secretariat within two months of the coming into force of the Covenant. Notice thereof shall be sent to all other Members of the League.

Any fully self-governing State, Dominion or Colony not named in the Annex may become a Member of the League if its admission is agreed to by two-thirds of the Assembly, provided that it shall give effective guarantees of its sincere intention to observe its international obligations, and shall accept such regulations as may be prescribed by the League in regard to its military, naval and air forces and armaments.

Any Member of the League may, after two years' notice of its intention so to do, withdraw from the League, provided that all its international obligations and all its obligations under this Covenant shall have been fulfilled at the time of its withdrawal.

ARTICLE 2

The action of the League under this Covenant shall be effected through the instrumentality of an Assembly and of a Council, with a permanent Secretariat,

ARTICLE 3

The Assembly shall consist of Representatives of the Members of the League.

The Assembly shall meet at stated intervals and from time to time as occasion may require at the Seat of the League or at such other place as may be decided upon.

The Assembly may deal at its meetings with any matter within the sphere of action of the League or affecting the peace of the world.

At meetings of the Assembly each Member of the League shall have one vote, and may have not more than three Representatives.

ARTICLE 4

The Council shall consist of Representatives of the Principal Allied and Associated Powers, together with Representatives of four other Members of the League. These four Members of the League shall be selected by the Assembly from time to time in its discretion. Until the appointment of the Representatives of the four Members of the League first selected by the Assembly, Representatives of Belgium, Brazil, Spain and Greece shall be members of the Council.

With the approval of the majority of the Assembly, the Council may name additional Members of the League whose Representatives shall always be members of the Council; the Council with like approval may increase the number of Members of the League to be selected by the Assembly for representation on the Council.

The Council shall meet from time to time as occasion may require, and at least once a year, at the Seat of the League, or at such other place as may be decided upon.

The Council may deal at its meetings with any matter within the sphere of action of the League or affecting the peace of the world.

Any Member of the League not represented on the Council shall be invited to send a Representative to sit as a member at any meeting of the Council during the consideration of matters specially affecting the interests of that Member of the League.

At meetings of the Council, each Member of the League represented on the Council shall have one vote, and may have not more than one Representative.

ARTICLE 5

Except where otherwise expressly provided in this Covenant or by the terms of the present Treaty, decisions at any meeting of the Assembly or of the Council shall require the agreement of all the Members of the League represented at the meeting.

All matters of procedure at meetings of the Assembly or of the Council, including the appointment of Committees to investigate particular matters, shall be regulated by the Assembly or by the Council and may be decided by a majority of the Members of the League represented at the meeting.

The first meeting of the Assembly and the first meeting of the Council shall be summoned by the President of the United States of America.

ARTICLE 6

The permanent Secretariat shall be established at the Seat of the League. The Secretariat shall comprise a Secretary General and such secretaries and staff as may be required.

The first Secretary General shall be the person named in the Annex; thereafter the Secretary General shall be appointed by the Council with the approval of the majority of the Assembly.

The secretaries and staff of the Secretariat shall be appointed by the Secretary General with the approval of the Council.

The Secretary General shall act in that capacity at all meetings of the Assembly and of the Council.

The expenses of the Secretariat shall be borne by the Members of the League in accordance with the apportionment of the expenses of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union.

ARTICLE 7

The Seat of the League is established at Geneva.

The Council may at any time decide that the Seat of the League shall be established elsewhere.

All positions under or in connection with the League, including the Secretariat, shall be open equally to men and women.

Representatives of the Members of the League and officials of the League when engaged on the business of the League shall enjoy diplomatic privileges and immunities.

The buildings and other property occupied by the League or its officials or by Representatives attending its meetings shall be inviolable.

ARTICLE 8

The Members of the League recognise that the maintenance of peace requires the reduction of national armaments to the lowest point consistent with national safety and the enforcement by common action of international obligations.

The Council, taking account of the geographical situation and circumstances of each State, shall formulate plans for such reduction for the consideration and action of the several Governments.

Such plans shall be subject to reconsideration and revision at least every ten years.

After these plans shall have been adopted by the several Governments, the limits of armaments therein fixed shall not be exceeded without the concurrence of the Council.

The Members of the League agree that the manufacture by private enterprise of munitions and implements of war is open to grave objections. The Council shall advise how the evil effects attendant upon such manufacture can be prevented, due regard being had to the necessities of those Members of the League which are not able to manufacture the munitions and implements of war necessary for their safety.

The Members of the League undertake to interchange full and frank information as to the scale of their armaments, their military, naval and air programmes and the condition of such of their industries as are adaptable to war-like purposes.

ARTICLE 9

A permanent Commission shall be constituted to advise the Council on the execution of the provisions of Articles 1 and 8 and on military, naval and air questions generally.

ARTICLE 10

The Members of the League undertake to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence of all Members of the League. In case of any such aggression or in case of any threat or danger of such aggression the Council shall advise upon the means by which this obligation shall be fulfilled.

ARTICLE 11

Any war or threat of war, whether immediately affecting any of the Members of the League or not, is hereby declared a matter of concern to the whole League, and the League shall take any action that may be deemed wise and effectual to safeguard the peace of nations. In case any such emergency should arise the Secretary General shall on the request of any Member of the League forthwith summon a meeting of the Council.

It is also declared to be the friendly right of each Member of the League to bring to the attention of the Assembly or of the Council any circumstance whatever affecting international relations which threatens to disturb international peace or the good understanding between nations upon which peace depends.

ARTICLE 12

The Members of the League agree that if there should arise between them any dispute likely to lead to a rupture, they will submit the matter either to arbitration or to inquiry by the Council, and they agree in no case to resort to war until three months after the award by the arbitrators or the report by the Council.

In any case under this Article the award of the arbitrators shall be made within a reasonable time, and the report of the Council shall be made within six months after the submission of the dispute.

ARTICLE 13

The Members of the League agree that whenever any dispute shall arise between them which they recognise to be suitable for submission to arbitration and which cannot be satisfactorily settled by diplomacy, they will submit the whole subject-matter to arbitration.

Disputes as to the interpretation of a treaty, as to any question of international law, as to the existence of any fact which if established would constitute a breach of any international obligation, or as to the extent and nature of the reparation to be made for any such breach, are declared to be among those which are generally suitable for submission to arbitration.

For the consideration of any such dispute the court of arbitration to which the case is referred shall be the Court agreed on by the parties to the dispute or stipulated in any convention existing between them.

The Members of the League agree that they will carry out in full good faith any award that may be rendered, and that they will not resort to war against a Member of the League which complies therewith. In the event of any failure to carry out such an award, the Council shall propose that steps should be taken to give effect thereto.

ARTICLE 14

The Council shall formulate and submit to the Members of the League for adoption plans for the establishment of a Permanent Court of

International Justice. The Court shall be competent to hear and determine any dispute of an international character which the parties thereto submit to it. The Court may also give an advisory opinion upon any dispute or question referred to it by the Council or by the Assembly.

ARTICLE 15

If there should arise between Members of the League any dispute likely to lead to a rupture, which is not submitted to arbitration in accordance with Article 13, the Members of the League agree that they will submit the matter to the Council. Any party to the dispute may effect such submission by giving notice of the existence of the dispute to the Secretary General, who will make all necessary arrangements for a full investigation and consideration thereof.

For this purpose the parties to the dispute will communicate to the Secretary General as promptly as possible, statements of their case with all the relevant facts and papers, and the Council may forthwith direct the publication thereof.

The Council shall endeavour to effect a settlement of the dispute, and if such efforts are successful, a statement shall be made public giving such facts and explanations regarding the dispute and the terms of settlement thereof as the Council may deem appropriate.

If the dispute is not thus settled, the Council either unanimously or by a majority vote shall make and publish a report containing a statement of the facts of the dispute and the recommendations which are deemed just and proper in regard thereto.

Any Member of the League represented on the Council may make public a statement of the facts of the dispute and of its conclusions regarding the same.

If a report by the Council is unanimously agreed to by the members thereof other than the Representatives of one or more of the parties to the dispute, the Members of the League agree that they will not go to war with any party to the dispute which complies with the recommendations of the report.

If the Council fails to reach a report which is unanimously agreed to by the members thereof, other than the Representatives of one or more of the parties to the dispute, the Members of the League reserve to themselves the right to take such action as they shall consider necessary for maintenance of right and justice.

If the dispute between the parties is claimed by one of them, and is found by the Council, to arise out of a matter which by international law is solely within the domestic jurisdiction of that party, the Council shall so report, and shall make no recommendation as to its settlement.

The Council may in any case under this Article refer the dispute to the Assembly. The dispute shall be so referred at the request of either party to the dispute, provided that such request be made within fourteen days after the submission of the dispute to the Council.

In any case referred to the Assembly, all the provisions of this Article and of Article 12 relating to the action and powers of the Council shall apply to the action and powers of the Assembly, provided that a report made by the Assembly, if concurred in by the Representatives of those Members of the League represented on the Council and of a majority of the other Members of the League, exclusive in each case of the Representatives of the parties to the dispute, shall have the same force as a report by the Council concurred in by all the members thereof other than the Representatives of one or more of the parties to the dispute.

ARTICLE 16

Should any Member of the League resort to war in disregard of its covenants under Articles 12, 13 or 15, it shall *ipso facto* be deemed to have committed an act of war against all other Members of the League, which hereby undertake immediately to subject it to the severance of all trade or financial relations, the prohibition of all intercourse between their nationals and the nationals of the covenant-breaking State, and the prevention of all financial, commercial or personal intercourse between the nationals of the covenant-breaking State and the nationals of any other State, whether a Member of the League or not.

It shall be the duty of the Council in such case to recommend to the several Governments concerned what effective military, naval or air force the Members of the League shall severally contribute to the armed forces to be used to protect the covenants of the League.

The Members of the League agree, further, that they will mutually support one another in the financial and economic measures which are taken under this Article, in order to minimise the loss and inconvenience resulting from the above measures, and that they will mutually support one another in resisting any special measures aimed at one of their number by the covenant-breaking State, and that they will take the necessary steps to afford passage through their territory to the forces of any of the Members of the League which are co-operating to protect the covenants of the League.

Any Member of the League which has violated any covenant of the League may be declared to be no longer a Member of the League by a vote of the Council concurred in by the Representatives of all the other Members of the League represented thereon.

ARTICLE 17

In the event of a dispute between a Member of the League and a State which is not a Member of the League, or between States not Members of the League, the State or States not Members of the League shall be invited to accept the obligations of the membership in the League for the purposes of such dispute, upon such conditions as the Council may deem just. If such invitation is accepted, the provisions of Articles 12 to 16 inclusive shall be applied with such modifications as may be deemed necessary by the Council.

Upon such invitation being given the Council shall immediately institute an inquiry into the circumstances of the dispute and recommend such action as may seem best and most effectual in the circumstances.

If a State so invited shall refuse to accept the obligations of membership in the League for the purposes of such dispute, and shall resort to war against a Member of the League, the provisions of Article 16 shall be applicable as against the State taking such action.

If both parties to the dispute when so invited refuse to accept the obligations of membership in the League for the purposes of such disputes the Council may take such measures and make such recommendations as will prevent hostilities and will result in the settlement of the dispute.

ARTICLE 18

Every treaty or international engagement entered into hereafter by any Member of the League shall be forthwith registered with the Secretariat and shall as soon as possible be published by it. No such treaty or international engagement shall be binding until so registered.

ARTICLE 19

The Assembly may from time to time advise the reconsideration by Members of the League of treaties which have become inapplicable and the consideration of international conditions whose continuance might endanger the peace of the world.

ARTICLE 20

The Members of the League severally agree that this Covenant is accepted as abrogating all obligations or understandings *inter se* which are inconsistent with the terms thereof, and solemnly undertake that they will not hereafter enter into any engagements inconsistent with the terms thereof.

In case any Member of the League shall, before becoming a Member of the League, have undertaken any obligations inconsistent with the terms of this Covenant, it shall be the duty of such Member to take immediate steps to procure its release from such obligations.

ARTICLE 21

Nothing in this Covenant shall be deemed to affect the validity of international engagements, such as treaties of arbitration or regional understandings like the Monroe doctrine, for securing the maintenance of peace.

ARTICLE 22

To those colonies and territories which as a consequence of the late war have ceased to be under the sovereignty of the States which formerly governed them and which are inhabited by peoples not yet able to stand by themselves under the strenuous conditions of the modern world, there should be applied the principle that the well-being and development of such peoples form a sacred trust of civilisation and that securities for the performance of this trust should be embodied in this Covenant.

The best method of giving practical effect to this principle is that the tutelage of such peoples should be entrusted to advanced nations who by reason of their resources, their experience or their geographical position can best undertake this responsibility, and who are willing to accept it, and that this tutelage should be exercised by them as Mandatories on behalf of the League.

The character of the mandate must differ according to the stage of the development of the people, the geographical situation of the territory, its economic conditions and other similar circumstances.

Certain communities formerly belonging to the Turkish Empire have reached a stage of development where their existence as independent nations can be provisionally recognised subject to the rendering of administrative advice and assistance by a Mandatory until such time as they are able to stand alone. The wishes of these communities must be a principal consideration in the selection of the Mandatory.

Other peoples, especially those of Central Africa, are at such a stage that the Mandatory must be responsible for the administration of the territory under conditions which will guarantee freedom of conscience and religion, subject only to the maintenance of public order and morals, the prohibition of abuses such as the slave trade, the arms traffic and the liquor traffic, and the prevention of the establishment of fortifications or military and naval bases and of military training of the natives for other than police purposes and the defence of territory, and will also secure equal opportunities for the trade and commerce of other Members of the League.

There are territories, such as South-West Africa and certain of the South Pacific Islands, which, owing to the sparseness of their population, or their small size, or their remoteness from the centres of civilisation, or their geographical contiguity to the territory of the Mandatory, and other circumstances, can be best administered under the laws of the Mandatory as integral portions of its territory, subject to the safeguards above mentioned in the interests of the indigenous population.

In every case of mandate, the Mandatory shall render to the Council an annual report in reference to the territory committed to its charge.

The degree of authority, control, or administration to be exercised by the Mandatory shall, if not previously agreed upon by the Members of the League, be explicitly defined in each case by the Council.

A permanent Commission shall be constituted to receive and examine the annual reports of the Mandatories and to advise the Council on all matters relating to the observance of the mandates.

ARTICLE 23

Subject to and in accordance with the provisions of international conventions existing or hereafter to be agreed upon, the Members of the League:

(*a*) will endeavor to secure and maintain fair and humane conditions of labour for men, women, and children, both in their own countries and in all countries to which their commercial and industrial relations extend, and for that purpose will establish and maintain the necessary international organisations;

(*b*) undertake to secure just treatment of the native inhabitants of territories under their control;

(*c*) will entrust the League with the general supervision over the execution of agreements with regard to the traffic in women and children, and the traffic in opium and other dangerous drugs;

(*d*) will entrust the League with the general supervision of the trade in arms and ammunition with the countries in which the control of this traffic is necessary in the common interest;

(*e*) will make provision to secure and maintain freedom of communications and of transit and equitable treatment for the commerce of all Members of the League. In this connection, the special necessities of the regions devastated during the war of 1914–1918 shall be borne in mind;

(*f*) will endeavour to take steps in matters of international concern for the prevention and control of disease.

ARTICLE 24

There shall be placed under the direction of the League all international bureaux already established by general treaties if the parties to such treaties consent. All such international bureaux and all commissions for the regulation of matters of international interest hereafter constituted shall be placed under the direction of the League.

In all matters of international interest which are regulated by general conventions but which are not placed under the control of international bureaux or commissions, the Secretariat of the League shall, subject to the consent of the Council and if desired by the parties, collect and distribute all relevant information and shall render any other assistance which may be necessary or desirable.

The Council may include as part of the expenses of the Secretariat the expenses of any bureau or commission which is placed under the direction of the League.

ARTICLE 25

The Members of the League agree to encourage and promote the establishment and co-operation of duly authorised voluntary national Red Cross organizations having as purposes the improvement of health, the prevention of disease and the mitigation of suffering throughout the world.

ARTICLE 26

Amendments to this Covenant will take effect when ratified by the Members of the League whose Representatives compose the Council and by a majority of the Members of the League whose Representatives compose the Assembly.

No such amendment shall bind any Member of the League which signifies its dissent therefrom, but in that case it shall cease to be a Member of the League.

ANNEX

I. ORIGINAL MEMBERS OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS SIGNATORIES OF THE TREATY OF PEACE

- United States of America
- Belgium
- Bolivia
- Brazil
- British Empire
  - Canada
  - Australia
  - South Africa
  - New Zealand
  - India
- China
- Cuba
- Ecuador
- France
- Greece
- Guatemala
- Haiti
- Hedjaz
- Honduras
- Italy
- Japan
- Liberia
- Nicaragua
- Panama
- Peru
- Poland
- Portugal
- Roumania
- Serb-Croat-Slovene State
- Siam
- Czecho-Slovakia
- Uruguay

STATES INVITED TO ACCEDE TO THE COVENANT

- Argentine Republic
- Chili
- Colombia
- Denmark
- Netherlands
- Norway
- Paraguay
- Persia
- Salvador
- Spain
- Sweden
- Switzerland
- Venezuela

II. FIRST SECRETARY GENERAL OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

The Honourable Sir James Eric Drummond, K. C. M. G., C. B.

CHAPTER XLI

THE AMERICAN LEGION

OUT of the great war issued an organization pledged to carry into the future Government of the United States the principles for which American blood was shed on land, at sea and in the air. This organization was the American Legion.

A group of men fired with the determination to carry into civilian life visions revealed to them upon the battlefields of France met in the American Club near the Place de la Concorde in Paris on the morning of March 15th, 1919. Subsequent sessions were held in the Cirque de Paris on the 16th and 17th of March. These sessions were under the designation of the Paris caucus. Lieutenant-Colonel Bennett Clark of Missouri, son of Speaker Champ Clark of the National House of Representatives, then serving with the 35th Division, was chosen chairman of the caucus, and Lieutenant-Colonel T. W. Miller of Pennsylvania, serving in the 79th Division, was vice-chairman. The caucus itself was the outgrowth of a meeting under the auspices of Grand Headquarters, called for the purpose of bettering conditions and developing the sentiment in the American Expeditionary Forces. At that preliminary meeting the following representatives and organizations were present:

Lieut.-Col. Francis R. Appleton, Jr	2d Army
Lieut.-Col. G. Edward Buxton	82d Div.
Lieut.-Col. Bennett C. Clark, ex-35th Div	later with 88th Div.
Lieut.-Col. Ralph D. Cole	37th Div.
Lieut.-Col. D. J. Davis, ex-28th Div	later Att. G. H. Q.
Lieut.-Col. Frank D'Olier	Q. M., S. O. S.
Col. W. J. Donovan	Rainbow Div.
Lieut.-Col. David M. Goodrich	G. H. Q.
Maj. T. E. Gowenlock, ex-1st Div	later with 1st A. C.
Col. Thorndike Howe	A. P. O. Dept.
Lieut.-Col. John Price Jackson	Peace Commission

Maj. DeLancey Kountze	G. H. Q.
Lieut.-Col. R. W. Llewellen	28th Div.
Capt. Ogden Mills, ex-6th Div	later Att. G.-2, S. O. S.
Lieut.-Col. Benjamin Moore	82d Div.
Lieut.-Col. Theodore Roosevelt, Jr	1st Div.
Lieut.-Col. R. C. Stebbins	3d A. C.
Maj. R. C. Stewart	1st Div.
Lieut-Col. George A. White, ex-41st Div	later Att. G. H. Q.
Lieut.-Col. Eric Fisher Wood, ex-83d Div	later with 88th Div.

When the Paris caucus assembled it elected a temporary executive committee of one hundred, of which Colonel Milton Foreman of Illinois, serving in the 33d Division, became chairman, Lieutenant-Colonel George H. White of Oregon, serving with the 41st Division, secretary; and Major R. C. Patterson of New York, serving in the Paris Command, assistant secretary as, follows:

1st Div	Capt. Arthur S. Hyde
2d Div	Lieut.-Col. Harold C. Snyder
26th Div	Sgt. Wheaton Freeman
26th Div	Lieut.-Col. William J. Keville
27th Div	Lieut.-Col. Edward E. Gauche, N. Y.
27th Div	Reg. Sgt.-Maj. Samuel A. Ritchie, N. Y.
28th Div	Brig.-Gen. William G. Price, Jr., Penn.
28th Div	Sgt. Ted Myers, Penn.
29th Div	Lieut.-Col. Orison M. Hurd, N. J.
29th Div	Color Sgt. Andreas Z. Holley, Maryland
31st Div	Capt. Leon Schwarz, Ala.
33d Div	Col. Milton A. Foreman, Ill.
35th Div	Lieut.-Col. B. C. Clark, Mo.
35th Div	Sgt. Fred Heney, Kans.
36th Div	Col. Charles W. Nimon, Texas
36th Div	Sgt.-Maj. L. H. Evridge, Texas
41st Div	Col. Frank White, N. Dak.
42d Div	Col. Henry J. Reilly, Ill.
42d Div	Sgt. Rowe, Iowa
77th Div	Maj. Duncan Harris
77th Div	Sgt. Lawrence Miller, N. Y.
79th Div	Lieut.-Col. Stuart S. Janney, Md.
79th Div	Sgt. Benjamin R. Kauffman, Pa.
80th Div	Capt. Arthur F. Shaw, Mich.
81st Div	Maj. Theodore G. Tilghman, N. C.
81st Div	Reg. Sgt.-Maj. William S. Beam, N. C.
82d Div	Capt. Frank S. Williams; Fla.

82d Div	Sgt. Alvin T. York, Tenn.
83d Div	Lieut.-Col. Wayman C. Lawrence, Jr., W. Va.
83d Div	Cpl. Thoyer
86th Div	Maj. John H. Smale, Ill.
88th Div	Lieut.-Col. George C. Parsons, Minn.
88th Div	Wagoner Dale J. Shaw, Iowa
89th Div	Lieut.-Col. Frank Wilbur Smith, Pa.
91st Div	Lieut.-Col. John Guy Strohm, Ore.
91st Div	Sgt.-Maj. Hercovitz, Cal.
S. O. S. Hq	Col. James H. Graham, Conn.
Adv. Sec., S. O. S	Capt. David A. Maurier, Wash.
Base Sec. No. 1, S. O. S	Pvt. W. L. Thompson, N. Y.
Base Sec. No. 3, S. O. S	Lieut.-Col. Carle Abrams, Ore.
Base Sec. No. 5, S. O. S	Maj. Orlin Hudson, Kans.
Base Sec. No. 6, S. O. S	Maj. Arthur S. Dwight, N. Y.
Troops with French	Sgt. L. K. Flynt, Mass.
Troops with French	Capt. A. W. Kipling, Paris, France
Paris Command	Pvt. Harold W. Ross, Cal.
Paris Command	Lieut.-Col. John Price Jackson
G. H. Q	Bishop Charles H. Brent, N. Y.
1st Army Corps	Lieut.-Col. Lemuel L. Bolles, Wash.
1st Army Corps	Sgt. Maj. Race
2d Army Hq	Lieut.-Col. Burke H. Sinclair, Colo.

This executive committee was given general powers to represent the units in foreign service, to confer with committees or representatives of the St. Louis caucus as soon as these should be appointed, and in conjunction with the latter to issue a call for the holding of county and state conventions and the determination of a unit of representation and a method of selecting delegates to one general convention; this convention to be composed of persons entitled to membership in the American Legion under its tentative constitution and to be held in Chicago on November 11th, or at such other place and date as might be agreed upon between the representatives of the two caucuses.

At a convention in St. Louis May 8, 1919, Lieutenant-Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, Jr., as temporary chairman of the original Paris committee, presided and placed before the American people the purposes of the League. These are defined in the preamble to its constitution:

> For God and country we associate ourselves together for the following purposes:

To uphold and defend the Constitution of the United States of America; to maintain law and order; to foster and perpetuate a one hundred per cent Americanism; to preserve the memories and incidents of our association in the Great War; to inculcate a sense of individual obligation to the community, state and nation; to combat the autocracy of both the classes and the masses; to make right the master of might; to promote peace and good will on earth; to safeguard and transmit to posterity the principles of justice, freedom and democracy; to consecrate and sanctify our comradeship by our devotion to mutual helpfulness.

All persons, women as well as men, who were in the military or naval service of the United States between April 6, 1917, and November 11, 1918, are eligible for membership except those persons who separated from the service under terms amounting to dishonorable discharge and except also those persons who refused to perform their military duties on the ground of conscientious objection.

The convention condemned the seditious activities of the I. W. W.'s, the anarchists, international socialists, and other so-called "Reds" who have been responsible for many demonstrations of lawlessness.

It protested against certain nefarious business concerns which have employed men in uniform to peddle their wares.

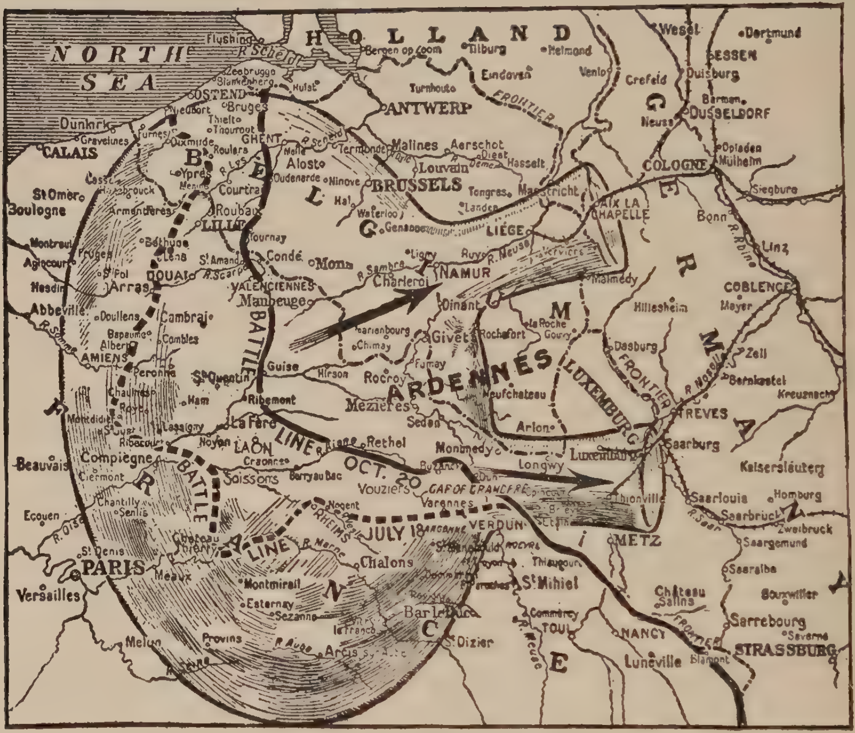
It demanded that Congress should deport to their own countries those aliens who refused to join the colors when America entered the war and who pleaded their citizenship in other countries to evade the draft.

It demanded of Congress the same disability pay for men of the National Guard and the National Army as now pertains to those in Regular Army establishments.

With a view to serving the discharged soldier during the difficult period of readjustment to civilian pursuits, the caucus took steps to see that disabled soldiers, sailors and marines are brought into contact with the Rehabilitation Department of the government, which department assists them to learn and gain lucrative occupations.

The delegates also voted to recommend that Congress take steps to reclaim arid, swamp and cut-over timber lands to afford ex-service men an opportunity to establish homes for themselves and a fitting place in the construction work of the country.

The meeting authorized the establishment of a bureau to aid service men to get re-employment; also a legal bureau to aid them in getting from the government pay and allotments long overdue. These bureaus together with an organization to obtain for national service men their rights and privileges under the War Risk Insurance Act, have been organized and are in actual operation at National Headquarters of the Legion in New York City.



Emptying the Bottle

With the might of America added to the Allies the Germans began their last retreat. The map shows the two avenues of escape, north and south of the impenetrable Ardennes—two bottle-necks through which ran the trunk railroads to the Rhine.

Steps were taken to proceed with the further national organization of the American Legion through state branches and local posts.

CHAPTER XLII

THE RECORD OF THE DIVISIONS

WHEN Von Tirpitz risked the entrance of the United States into the war by insisting upon unrestricted submarine warfare, he counted upon the inertia of the world's greatest democracy. He believed that a nation grown soft and prosperous in the arts of peace could not acquire fibre, resolution and the art of warfare within the space of three or four years. He and those in the German High Command leagued with him could not imagine that there existed a people whose idealism could rise triumphant over self-interest, who could put aside the opportunity for world domination and take up the bloody sacrifices of warfare for righteousness' sake.

America amazed the world by the vigor of its entrance into the task at hand. Leaving without a murmur their homes and shops, the manhood of the nation rallied to the symbol of freedom, the Stars and Stripes, at the call of the President. Long before the call came thousands of Americans had enlisted in the armies of France and England. These had been impatient at the delays in America's realization of the necessity for crushing military autocracy. These thousands were the vanguard of America in the great war. Many of them were absorbed in the American armies that later went to France. Many others, however, continued to fight in Canadian, English and French regiments until the end of the war.

After America's entrance into the World War, it drew its military strength from the great body of civilians through three great channels. These were:

The Regular Army.
The National Guard.
The National Army.

Later these were welded into one huge homogeneous body containing more than four million men known as "The

United States Army." Before that amalgamation the three armies were arranged in divisions. Each of these divisions was composed of 1,000 officers and 27,000 men. The Regular Army divisions were numbered from one to twenty inclusive; the National Guard divisions were numbered from twenty-six to forty-two inclusive, and the National Army from seventy-six to 102 inclusive. This was the arrangement until the signing of the armistice.

No divisions numbered higher than ninety-three saw service in France. The 94th, 98th, 99th, 100th, 101st and 102d existed in name only. Officers had been assigned and regiments that had seen service in other divisions had been tentatively named as nuclei for the new organizations when the armistice was signed.

The record of this great army so speedily assembled and trained excels that of any army in the history of the world. It outstrips any conception in fiction. The first rush of America's patriotic manhood was to enlist in the Regular Army divisions. At the beginning of the war these made a mere skeleton army. The hundreds of thousands of fiery volunteers soon filled the quota allotted to the Regular Army. The famous 1st Division which was the first to go to France and the last to leave Germany was speedily completed. Almost simultaneously the heroic 2d Division with its famous Marine Brigade showed a full roster. Then came the completion of the 3d Division, heroes of Château-Thierry and the Marne, and all the other regular army divisions.

While the Regular Army was filling its ranks, the National Guard of the various states was taking into its ranks equal numbers of patriotic young Americans. There was a fine spirit of rivalry in these organizations and that spirit found expression later in the great game played on the battlefields of Europe.

Finally came the National Army. In the wisdom of the President and Congress it was decided that true democracy involved a system of selective service which would give to the poor and the rich, the high and the low, equal opportunity to serve the nation. That was the idea upon which the National Army was founded, a citizen army that wrote itself imperishably in deeds of sacrifice into the history of the world.

That America and the world may not forget the record of the United States Army which was the instrument of Providence in the destruction of military autocracy, the story of the divisions that actually were organized is herewith set forth:

FIRST DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

The division insignia is a crimson figure "1" on khaki background. Chosen because the numeral "1" represents the number of the division and many of its subsidiary organizations. Also, as proudly claimed, because it was the first division in France; first in sector; first to fire a shot at the Germans; first to attack; first to conduct a raid; first to be raided; first to capture prisoners; first to inflict casualties; first to suffer casualties; first to be cited singly in general orders; first in the number of division, corps and army commanders and general staff officers produced from its personnel; last to leave war zone.

The first units left the United States June 14, 1917, and the last units arrived in France July 2, 1917. The division went into the Gondrecourt training area for training. It entered the line in the Sommerville sector, ten kilometers southeast of Nancy, for instructional purposes under French command October 21st, and withdrew the night of November 20, 1917. This sector was quiet. Entered the Ansauville sector under tactical command of the French. This sector was approximately twenty kilometers northwest of Toul. Sector quiet with occasional active days. Division withdrew April 3d. The 1st Artillery Brigade was the only American artillery in action during this period. Entered the Cantigny sector, five kilometers west of Montdidier, April 25th. The Cantigny operation was carried out the morning of May 28th, the division advancing the line three to six hundred yards on a twenty-two-hundred-yard front. Division was relieved July 7, 1918. Entered the line the night of July 17, 1918, for the Soissons operation, approximately fifteen kilometers southwest of Soissons. The fighting was severe throughout the attack, especially July 20th and 21st. The division was relieved after having reached Berzy le Sec. Entered the Saizerais sector on August 7th. The sector was quiet and the division was relieved August 24th.

St. Mihiel operation: Elements of the division commenced entering the sector on September 6th, completing the relief September 11th. Began an attack on September 12th in the Beaumont sector, twenty kilometers northwest of Toul. On September 13th the division was regrouped and held in reserve of the 4th Army Corps. The division had advanced its line fourteen kilometers in nineteen hours. In the operation east of the Argonne and west of the Meuse, the division moved into line October 1st and attacked in the Cheppy sector, one kilometer west of Varennes, continuing the attack until the night of October 11th, when it was relieved. The division had advanced approximately seven kilometers. On November 6th, elements of the division attacked in the area of Mouzon. At 2 P. M. orders were received to assemble the division and march to Sedan. The division attacked the heights south and southwest of Sedan on the morning of November 7th. At 2 P. M. the division was ordered to withdraw. Commenced its march to the Coblenz bridgehead from Abaucourt on November 17th. Marched through Lorraine and the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. Crossed the Rhine on December 13th. Occupied its area east of Rhine in the Coblenz bridgehead, December 14th.

General Pershing, almost without exception, picked out the 1st Division for the vital position, or post of honor, in most of his big engagements, for example, he put the 1st Division in the front line for seventy-two continuous days and nights, without divisional relief, at the battle of Picardy, when the Germans were driven through from St. Quentin to Montdidier. Again, at the second battle of the Marne, which began July 18, 1918, and was the turning point of the entire war, Pershing put the 1st Division practically directly at the hinge of this great door movement, at Soissons, only one French division being on the inside of it, and the 2d Division, containing the much advertised marines, were placed two whole divisions farther away from the hinge on our right. Again, it was the 1st Division that Pershing gave the post of honor, the inside position, just east of dangerous Mont Sec, when the St. Mihiel salient was closed.

The division captured 165 officers and 6,304 men, numerous machine guns, pieces of artillery of all calibers and a great quantity of supplies. Casualties, 23,974, including 106 prisoners. The 1st Division made a total advance against resistance of fifty-one kilometers. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded to individuals of the division, 300.

The commanding generals of the division were as follows: Major-General William L. Sibert, June 8, 1917, to December 12, 1917; Major-General Robert L. Bullard, December 12, 1917, until he became a corps commander. On March 15, 1919, Major-General E. F. McGlachlin, Jr., was in command of the division.

The following units composed the division: the 16th, 18th, 26th, 28th Infantry Regiments; 5th, 6th, 7th, Artillery Regiments; 1st Engineers Regiment and Train; 2d Field Signal Battalion; 3d, 4th, 5th, Ambulance Companies and Field Hospital.

SECOND DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY AND MARINES)

Insignia, an Indian head on star background and shield with colors varying according to unit. Division was organized from elements of the Regular Army and Marines in France during last three months of 1917. After a period of training with the division headquarters at Bourmont, Haute-Marne, from October 26, 1917, to March 16, 1918, the division entered the Verdun and Toul sectors with headquarters at Sommedieu. Constant patrolling and several enemy raids repulsed.

On May 31st moved into the Château-Thierry sector, passing from the 7th A. C. French to the 21st A. C. French as reserve. Went forward about June 1, 1918, to meet a strong enemy attack which had developed on the line west of Château-Thierry. The attack of June 3d and 4th was halted June 4th on the line west of Château-Thierry and the division advanced two kilometers in the neighborhood of Vaux and in the Belleau Woods, between June 6th and July 1st. The relief of the division was completed July 9th. On July 16th the division entered the sector south of Soissons and attacked on the morning of the 18th and again on the morning of the 19th, advancing a total distance of eleven kilometers after severe fighting. On July 20th the division moved into reserve position and left the sector. On August 9th the division entered the Marbach sector. This was a quiet sector. Relieved August 24th. Entered the line on the St. Mihiel salient, September 9th, withdrawing September 16th, after having advanced approximately nine kilometers. Entered the front line of the Blanc Mont sector near Somme Py under the French. Relieved October 27th. Entered the Meuse-Argonne sector on October 30th and attacked November 1st, advancing to the Meuse. Relieved after declaration of armistice. The division had made an advance of twenty-nine kilometers. Formed part of Army of Occupation.

Some of the units of the division, as a part of the 1st Division, left the United States in June, 1917. The division captured 228 officers, 11,738 men, 343 pieces of artillery, 1,350 machine guns and made a total advance of sixty kilometers against resistance.

The units composing the division were the 9th and 23d Inf., 5th and 6th Marine Corps Regts., 12th and 15th and 17th Art. Regts., 4th, 5th and 6th Machine Gun Bns., 2d Trench Mortar Battery, 1st Fld. Sig. Bn., 2d Eng. Regt. and Train, 1st, 15th, 16th and 23d Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals (composing 2d Sanitary Train).

Commanding generals: Brig.-Gen. Charles A. Doyon, U. S. Marine Corps, to Oct. 24, 1917; Maj.-Gen. Omar Bundy, Oct. 15, 1917, to July 19, 1918; Brig.-Gen. James Harbord, July 20 to Aug. 2, 1918; and Maj.-Gen. John A. LeJeune, Aug. 3 to Nov. 11, 1918.

THIRD DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

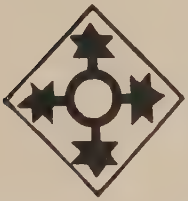
The division insignia consists of three white stripes which stand for the three operations in which the 3d Division took part, the Marne, St. Mihiel and the Meuse-Argonne. The blue stands for the loyalty of those who placed their lives on the altar of self-sacrifice in defense of American ideals of liberty and democracy. The division is known as the Marne Division.

The division was organized on November 21, 1917, at Camp Greene, Charlotte, N. C. The first units sailed from the United States on April 4, 1918, and the last units arrived in France, May 30, 1918. The division went into the Château Villain training area. Part of the division entered the line at Château-Thierry and Hill 204, May 31st. The entire division entered the Château-Thierry sector in June. On July 15th they met the Germans who crossed the Marne. On July 21st the division attacked across the Marne east of Château-Thierry and advanced to the Ourcq, where it was relieved on July 29th. On September 10th the 3d Division entered the St. Mihiel sector and formed a part of the 4th Corps Reserve in the reduction of the St. Mihiel salient. Was relieved September 14th. The division entered the line September 30th in the Argonne offensive, relieving a line division and fought continuously until October 27th, when it was relieved north of Montfaucon. On November 14th the division entered the line on the right of the 3d American Army and marched to the Rhine via Conflans and Saarburg, where it occupied the Kreis of Mayon.

Battle casualties, 16,356. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded to individuals of division, 233.

Commanding generals: Major-General Joseph T. Dickman, November 28, 1917, to February 26, 1918; Brigadier-General James A. Irons, February 27 to March 18, 1918; Major-General Joseph T. Dickman, April 12 to August 31, 1918; Major-General Beaumont B. Buck, August 31 to October 17, 1918; Brigadier-General Preston Brown, October 17 to November 11, 1918.

FOURTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)



The division is known as the "Ivy Division," its shoulder insignia is a green four-leaved ivy, about a circle, in cross shape, superimposed upon a square olive drab diamond.

Organized at Camp Greene, Charlotte, North Carolina, on December 10, 1917. Began leaving Camp Greene April 18, 1918, by way of Camp Merritt and Camp Mills. Overseas movement began May 1, 1918. By June 3d, all organizations, except artillery, were in the Samer area for training with the British. The artillery trained at Camp de Souge. On June 9, 1918, the division moved to Meaux and vicinity and on June 15th moved to La Ferte, being at the disposal of the 164th French Infantry Division. Units of the division participated in the fighting around Haute-Vesnes, Courchamps, Chevillon, St. Gengoulph and Sommelans until July 22d, when the division was made reserve. Some of infantry units were detached and put into the fighting with another American division.

The division went into the front line August 3d, advancing to the Vesle, and was relieved on night of August 11th, and on August 19th was withdrawn to the Reynel training area, and on September 1st all units were moved to Vavincourt for further training. On September 7th, troops of the 59th Infantry went into the line in the Toul sector southeast of Verdun. The 59th Infantry was relieved September 15th and the entire division moved to woods near Lennes on night September 19th–20th.

The division, as part of 3d Corps, attacked on the first day in the Meuse-Argonne offensive, September 26th, advancing six and a half kilometers the first day, and continued in this offensive until October 19th, when it was relieved while holding Bois de la Cote Lemont, and Bois de Brieulles. On October 20th the division was assigned to the 2d Army; started to move to Vignot and Lucey areas on October 21st. On November 4th the division was assigned again to the 1st Army and started moving to Blercourt, November 6th, but was reassigned to the 2d Army on November 8th. The division returned to Void November 9th, attached to the 4th Corps. After signing of the armistice the division concentrated around Bourcq November 13th and the Artillery Brigade, which had been kept in action almost continuously along the Meuse, rejoined the division November 14th. Began its march into Germany November 20th, under the 3d Army and on December 16th the division was occupying the Kreises of Adenau and Cochem, Province of the Rhine, as its permanent area of occupation.

Battle casualties, 12,948. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 66.

Commanding generals: Major-General George H. Cameron, December 10, 1917 to August 24, 1918; Brigadier-General Benjamin W. Poore, August 24 to August 31, 1918; Major-General John L. Hines, August 31 to October 17, 1918; Major-General George H. Cameron, October 17 to October 24, 1918; Brigadier-General Benjamin W. Poore, October 24 to November 7, 1918; Major-General Mark L. Hersey, November 7 to November 11, 1918.

FIFTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Shoulder insignia, a red diamond. The division was organized at Camp Logan, Texas in latter part of May, 1917. The first organization to leave for overseas, entrained for Camp Merritt about the first of March. Division Headquarters arrived at Havre, France, May 1, 1918. Sent to the Bar-sur-Aube area for training; June 1st, moved by rail to the Vosges. Entered the Colmar sector in conjunction with the 21st Division (French) and remained there until July 16th. The division then moved by bus to the St. Die sector, and on the 23d of August, moved by bus and road to the St. Mihiel sector. In the St. Mihiel operation this division was a part of the 1st Army Corps and was placed in the line northeast of Regnieville-en-Haye with the 2d Division on their left and the 90th Division on their right. The division continued in the St. Mihiel offensive until September 16th when it moved by road and bus to the Argonne front and went into the attack on October 12th east of Montfaucon. The division continued in the attack until October 22d when it was relieved by the 90th Division, and was withdrawn to the vicinity of Malancourt. On October 27th the division was again brought into the attack southwest of Brieulles, crossed the Meuse river and took Dun-sur-Meuse and continued the attack until November 11th, when it had reached a position just south of Marville. On November 13th the division was moved back to the vicinity of Murvaux and on November 20th to Lion-Devant-Dun. When the 3d Army was formed this division constituted a part of the command and was marched to the vicinity of Longwy where it was placed in charge of the lines of communication, taking over the control of the territory in its area. On December 8th the division marched to vicinity of Remich, Luxembourg and upon arrival there was placed under command of the 2d Army.

The division was made up from the 6th, 11th, 60th and 61st Regular Army Infantry Regiments. (The 60th and 61st Infantry were organized from the old 7th Infantry). The 19th and 20th Field Artillery, organized from the old 7th Field Artillery; the 21st Field Artillery organized from the old 3d Field Artillery; the 7th Engineering Regiment organized from Companies E and F of the 1st Engineers and the 9th Field Signal Battalion organized from personnel of the Signal Corps of the Regular Army. The 13th, 14th and 15th Machine Gun Battalions; 5th Trench Mortar Battery; 5th Headquarters Trains and Military Police; 5th Ammunition Train; 5th Sanitary Train were organized from Regular Army and National Army drafts.

The division captured from the enemy the following: 2,405 prisoners, ninety-eight pieces of artillery, 802 machine guns and made a total advance of twenty-nine kilometers against resistance. Battle losses: killed, 1908, wounded, 7,975; prisoners of war, ninety-eight men. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 163.

Major-General James E. McMahon, U. S. A., commanded this division from December 13, 1917 until October 24, 1918; Major-General Hanson E. Ely from October 24th to November 11th.

SIXTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

The shoulder insignia of the division is a six-pointed star of red with the numeral "6" in blue superimposed on the center of the star. Popularly known as the "Star Division." Organized at Camp Forrest, Ga., and Camp McClellan, Ala., on November 26, 1917. On March 13, 1918, headquarters moved to Camp Forrest, Ga., and later left on May 8th and was established at Camp Wadsworth, S. C. Practically every state in the Union was represented in the volunteer personnel of the division; however, the majority of the men were from the South.

The division, less artillery and engineers began embarking from New York on May 8, 1918, and began debarking in England on July 17th, the last units arriving in France, August 28, 1918. From England the troops were transported to France, beginning July 21st, debarking at Le Havre. Preceding the division, the engineers arrived on May 18th at Brest, and were engaged in construction work at Gievres before joining the division in August near Chateauvillain. The artillery landed at Le Havre on July 29th and began its training at Valdahon.

After training in the vicinity of Chateauvillain, the division, less artillery, left on August 27, 1918, for Gerardmer where it occupied, under French command, a sector in the Vosges until October 11, 1918. On October 27th the division moved from Gerardmer by rail to the vicinity of Les Islettes and established headquarters at Beauchamp Farm. On November 2, 1918, the division began to march forward in the Meuse-Argonne offensive. On November 6th, headquarters was established at Stonne. Marched to a sector northeast of Verdun and entered the line on November 14th. Relieved on November 21st, and proceeded to the 14th training area. November 30th, the division headquarters was established at Aignay-le-Duc.

Battle casualties, 285, of which three were prisoners of war. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, ten.

Commanding generals: Brigadier-General James B. Erwin, November 26, 1917, to August 31, 1918; Major-General Walter P. Gordon, August 31 to November 11, 1918.

The 6th Division was composed of the following units: 11th and 12th Infantry Brigades, 51st, 52d, 53d, 54th Infantry Regiments, 17th and 18th Machine Gun Battalions, (6th Artillery Brigade), 3d, 11th and 78th Artillery Regiments, 6th Trench Mortar Battery, 16th Division Machine Gun Battalion, 318th Engineer Regiment and Train, 6th Field Signal Battalion, 6th Train Headquarters and Military Police, 6th Supply Train, 6th Ammunition Train, 6th Sanitary Train, 20th, 37th, 38th, 40th Ambulance Companies and Field Hospitals.

SEVENTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Insignia, two triangles with apexes touching, in black, on red circular base. Organized at Chickamauga Park, Ga., January 1, 1918. Division headquarters arrived at Camp MacArthur, Waco, Texas, February 5, 1918, at which time the division began assembling and training. Began leaving Camp MacArthur for Camp Merritt, N. J., July 18, 1918. Sailed from Hoboken, N. J., on July 31st. 14th Brigade followed during the next two weeks. The last units arrived in France on September 3, 1918. On August 19th the division arrived in 15th training area with headquarters at Ancy-le-Franc. Entire division (less artillery) arrived in training area by September 20th. Moved to Toul area September 30th with headquarters at Gondreville. Engaged in training and equipping.

Relief of the 90th Division was completed October 10th and 11th, in the Puvenelle sector. Division headquarters moved from Gondreville to Villers-en-Haye. 5th Field Artillery Brigade assigned to the support of the 7th Division. Defensive occupation of this sector from October 10th to November 9th. Offensive occupation of this sector to November 11th. Participated in the 2d Army offensive. On January 3, 1919, the

5th Field Artillery Brigade was relieved from the 7th Division. On January 10th the division headquarters moved from Euvezin to Saizerais. Units of the division moved south from battle area and engaged in active training. (The 7th Field Artillery Brigade trained at Camp Meucon; did not join division until February, 1919.)

During the operations of the division, one officer and sixty-eight men, twenty-eight machine guns and numerous supplies were captured from the enemy. This division made a total advance into enemy territory of three-fourths of a kilometer. Battle losses, 1,546 casualties, of which three were prisoners of war. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, thirty.

Commanding generals: Brigadier-General C. H. Barth, August 10 to October 24, 1918; Major-General Edmund Wittenmeyer, October 24 to November 11, 1918.

The units composing the divislon are as follows: 13th Infantry Brigade, 55th, 56th Infantry Regiments, 20th Machine Gun Battalion, 14th Infantry Brigade, 34th, 64th Infantry Regiments, 21st Machine Gun Battalion, 19th Divisional Machine Gun Battalion, 7th Artillery Brigade, 8th, 79th and 80th Artillery Regiments, 7th Trench Mortar Battery, 5th Engineer Regiment and Train, 10th Field Signal Battalion, 7th Training Headquarters and Military Police, 7th Supply Train, 7th Ammunition Train, 7th Sanitary Train, consisting of the 22d, 34th, 35th and 36th Ambulance Companies and Field Hospitals.

EIGHTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Insignia, a black Indian head with an orange circle. Popularly known as the "Pathfinder Division." Organized at Camp Fremont, Cal., December 17, 1917. During the latter part of August, 1918, some five thousand men and nearly one hundred officers were transferred from the 8th Division to the American Expeditionary Force in Siberia with Major-General William S. Graves. Major-General Eli A. Helmick then took command of the division which was filled up with recruits and on October 18, 1918, the division started to move to Camp Mills, Long Island. The 8th Division started to embark from Hoboken, October 30th. The 8th Artillery Brigade, including the 2d, 81st and 83d Field Artillery regiments; 8th Trench Mortar Battery; 16th Infantry Brigade headquarters and the 8th Infantry with division headquarters were the only units landed in France. None saw action. Following the armistice the division was demobilized through various camps.

The following units composed the division: 8th Division Headquarters, Headquarters Troop and Detachment; 15th and 16th Infantry Brigades; the 12th, 62d, 8th and 13th Infantry Regiments; the 22d, 23d and 24th Machine Gun Battalions; the 8th Field Artillery Brigade composed of the 8th Trench Mortar Battery, the 8th Ammunition Train, and the 2d, 81st and 83d Regiments of Field Artillery; the 319th Engineer Regiment and Train; the 320th Field Signal Battalion; the 8th Train Headquarters and Military Police; the 8th Supply Train; the 8th Sanitary Train, consisting of the 11th, 31st, 32d and 43d Ambulance and Field Hospital Companies.

NINTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Organized at Camp Sheridan, Alabama, July 8, 1918. The division was composed of Regular Army and National Army troops; the National Army drafts coming mostly from New England and the middle west. The 45th and 46th Regular Army Infantry Regiments constituted the nucleus of the infantry units of the division and part of their personnel was transferred to the 67th and 68th Infantry Regiments to form a basis on which these regiments were organized. The Artillery Brigade was organized at Camp McClellan, Alabama, on August 1, 1918, under the command of Colonel J. E. Myers. On October 29, 1918, Brigadier-General William Bryden assumed command of the brigade and remained in command until demobilization.

This division was not sent to France but just previous to the armistice had received orders to prepare for movement overseas and advance school detachment had been sent to the port of embarkation. After the armistice the division resumed its training until the end of January when the temporary officer and national army personnel were demobilized.

Major-General Willard A. Holbrook commanded the 9th Division from the time of its organization.

This division was composed of the following organizations: 17th and 18th Infantry Brigades, 9th Field Artillery Brigade, 45th, 67th and 68th Infantry Regiments, 25th, 26th and 27th Machine Gun Battalions, 25th, 26th and 27th Field Artillery Regiments, 9th Trench Mortar Battery, 209th Regiment Engineers and Train, 209th Field Signal Battalion, 209th Headquarters Train and Military Police, 209th Supply Train, 209th Ammunition Train, 209th Sanitary Train (consisting of Field Hospital and Ambulance Companies Nos. 233, 234, 235 and 236.)

TENTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Insignia, a blue square with a yellow "X" superimposed inside a yellow ring.

Organized at Camp Funston, Kansas. Began regular training on August 10, 1918. The advanced school detachment left Camp Funston on October 27, 1918, and arrived in France just prior to the signing of the armistice. The 210th Engineer Regiment and Train left for Camp Mills on November 1, 1918, and was ready for movement overseas. On January 18, 1919, demobilization was commenced and on February 18th all organizations of the 10th Division were demobilized except those belonging to the Regular Army

Major-General Leonard Wood commanded this division from the time of its organization until it was demobilized.

The division was composed of the following organizations: 10th Headquarters Troop, 28th Divisional Machine Gun Battalion, 19th Infantry Brigade, 41st Infantry Regiment, 69th Infantry Regiment, 29th Machine Gun Battalion, 20th Infantry Brigade, 20th Infantry Regiment, 70th Infantry Regiment, 30th Machine Gun Battalion, 10th Field Artillery Brigade, 28th Field Artillery Regiment, 29th Field Artillery Regiment, 30th Field Artillery Regiment, 10th Trench Mortar Battery, 210th Engineer Regiment, 210th Engineer Train, 10th Train Headquarters and Military Police, 10th Supply Train, 10th Sanitary Train, 237th Field Hospital, 238th Field Hospital, 239th Field Hospital, 240th Field Hospital, 237th Ambulance Company, 238th Ambulance Company, 239th Ambulance Company, 240th Ambulance Company.

ELEVENTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Known as the Lafayette Division. Insignia, a silhouette bust of Lafayette in blue, superimposed on a red disc. Organized at Camp Meade, Maryland, in August, 1918. The 17th Infantry, on duty in the Southern Department, and the 63d Infantry, stationed at Presidio, San Francisco, California, and certain detachments for special units were ordered to Camp Meade to form a nucleus around which the 11th Division was to be formed. There were taken from each company of these two regiments certain non-commissioned officers and privates who were assigned to the 71st and 72d Infantry Regiments to start their organization. The 24th Field Artillery Brigade was designated as divisional artillery for the 11th Division. This brigade was trained at West Point, Kentucky, and never actually joined the division at Camp Meade.

Immediately after its organization the division began a course of intensive training in preparation for service overseas. On October 25, 1918, the division advanced school detachment departed for overseas and arrived at Liverpool, England, on November 8th. On November 11th when the armistice was signed, the division was fully equipped and all preparations had been made for movement overseas. On November 29, 1918, the division was broken up and all organizations not belonging to the Regular Army were demobilized.

Major-General Jesse McI. Carter commanded the division from the time it was organized until demobilization.

The division was composed of the following organizations: 11th Div. Hqs. Troop, 31st Div. Machine Gun Bn., 21st Inf. Brig. (17th and 71st Inf Regts., 32d Machine Gun Bn), 22d Inf. Brig. (63d and 72d Inf. Regts., 33d Machine Gun Bn.), 24th Fld. Arty. Brig. (70th, 71st and 72d Fld. Arty. Regts., 24th Trench Mortar Battery), 211th Eng. Regt. and Train, 211th Fld. Sig. Bn., 211th Train Hqs. and M. P., 211th Supply Train, 211th

Amm. Train, 211th Sanitary Train (Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos., Nos. 341, 342, 343 and 344).

TWELFTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Popularly known as the Plymouth Division and its shoulder insignia was a blue diamond with a red center and the figure "12" in white, pierced by a bayonet. Organized at Camp Devens, Mass., July 12, 1918. The 36th and 42d Regular Army Infantry Regiments were ordered to Camp Devens in the latter part of July as a part of the 12th Division. There were taken from each company of these two regiments a certain number of non-commissioned officers and privates who were assigned to the 73d and 74th National Army Regiments as a nucleus. The 12th Field Artillery Brigade, the divisional artillery of this division, was organized and trained at Camp McClellan, Ala., and never actually joined the division at Camp Devens. By the 1st of September the training of the division for overseas service was well under way. At the time the armistice was signed the division had received its overseas equipment and was awaiting orders to move to a port of embarkation. On January 18, 1919, orders were received for the demobilization of the division, and by January 31st the entire commissioned and enlisted personnel not in the regular establishment had been discharged.

Major-General Henry P. McCain commanded this division from the time of its organization until it was demobilized.

This division was composed of the following organizations: 12th Div. Hqs. Troop, 34th Div. Machine Gun Bn., 23d Inf. Brig. (36th and 73d Inf. Regts., 35th Machine Gun Bn., 24th Inf. Brig. (42d and 74th Inf. Regts., 36th Machine Gun Bn.), 12th Fld. Arty. Brig. (34th, 35th, 36th Fld. Arty. Regts., 12th Trench Mortar Battery), 212th Engr. Regt. and Train, 212th Fld. Sig. Bn., 12th Hqs. Train and M. P., 12th Supply Train, 12th Amm. Train, 12th Sanitary Train (consisting of 245th, 246th, 247th and 248th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

THIRTEENTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Insignia, a disc of blue cloth on which is superimposed a red horse shoe with the opening to the top. In this opening is a figure of a black cat and underneath the figure are the numerals 13 in white block figures. Organized at Camp Lewis, American Lake, Washington, July, 1918. The 1st and 44th Regular Army Infantry Regiments were already stationed at Camp Lewis and a certain number of non-commissioned officers and enlisted men were transferred to form the nucleus of the 75th and 76th Infantry Regiments. The personnel of the division consisted mostly of the selective service quotas of August and September. Intensive training was begun immediately and by the 1st of November the division was equipped and ready for overseas service. On January 19, 1919, orders were issued for the demobilization of the division and in the early part of March all commissioned and enlisted personnel except those belonging to the regular establishment had been discharged or transferred.

Major-General Joseph D. Leitch was the commanding general of this division.

This division consisted of the following organizations: 13th Div. Hqs. Troop, 25th Inf. Brig. (1st and 75th Inf., 38th Machine Gun Bn.), 26th Inf. Brig. (44th and 76th Inf., 39th Machine Gun Bn.), 13th Fld. Arty. Brig. (37th, 38th and 39th Fld. Arty.), 213th Engr. Regt. and Train, 213th Fld. Sig. Bn., 13th Train Hqs. and M. P., 13th Supply Train, 13th Trench Mortar Battery, 13th Amm. Train, 13th Sanitary Train (249th, 250th, 251st and 252d Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos.).

FOURTEENTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Popularly known as the "Wolverine Division." Insignia, a green shield upon which is superimposed a yellow disc containing the head of a wolverine in black. Organized at Camp Custer, Michigan, on July 29, 1918. The 10th and 40th Regular Army Infantry Regiments were ordered to Camp Custer in the latter part of July as a part of the 14th Division and these regiments furnished the nucleus for the organization of the other infantry units of the division. The artillery brigade was organized on August 10, 1918, and training for overseas service was begun immediately. The 214th Regiment of Engineers was organized at Camp Forest, Ga., on August 14, 1918, and joined the division at Camp Custer on October 31, 1918. The 214th Field Signal Battalion was organized on July 13, 1918, at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, and arrived at Camp Custer on July 25, 1918. All other units of the division were organized and undergoing intensive training at Camp Custer by the first week in November and at the time of the signing of the armistice the division was being rounded into shape for service at the front. Demobilization of the division was commenced January 27, 1919, and by the last of February all units not belonging to the Regular Army had been demobilized.

Commanders of division: Col. Sam. Burkhardt, July 28 to Sept. 5, 1918; Brig.-Gen. H. L. Laubach, Sept. 5 to Nov. 9, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Grote Hutcheson, Nov. 9, 1918, until demobilization.

The division was composed of the following organizations: 14th Hqs. Troop, 40th Div. Machine Gun Bn., 27th Inf. Brig. (10th and 77th Inf. Regts., 41st Machine Gun Bn.), 28th Inf. Brig. (40th and 78th Inf. Regts., 42d Machine Gun Bn), 14th Fld. Arty. Brig. (40th, 41st and 42d Fld. Arty. Regts., 14th Trench Mortar Battery), 214th Engr. Regt., 214th Engr. Train, 214th Fld. Sig. Bn., 14th Train Hqs. and M. P., 14th Supply Train, 14th Sanitary Train (Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos. 253, 254, 255, and 256).

FIFTEENTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Insignia, a white rattlesnake. Organized at Camp Logan, Texas, on Aug. 28, 1918. The 43d and 57th Regular Army Infantry Regiments which were stationed at Camp Logan furnished the nucleus for the other infantry units of the division. The divisional artillery was organized at Camp Stanley, Texas, from National Army cavalry and remained at that camp for instruction. The engineer regiment and train was organized at Camp Humphries, Va., and joined the division at Camp Logan in the early part of November. By the 1st of November the organization of the division was about completed and all units were undergoing intensive training. On Dec. 4th the breaking up of the division was begun, when one battalion of the 43d Infantry was sent to Camp Bowie, Texas, and one battalion to Camp MacArthur, Texas. On Dec. 18th the 57th Infantry entrained for Camp Pike, Arkansas. By the middle of Feb., 1919, all organizations of the 15th Division not belonging to the Regular Army had been demobilized.

Commanders of division: Col. D. J. Baker, Aug. 28 to Sept. 11, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Guy V. Henry, Sept. 11, 1918, until demobilization.

The division was composed of the following organizations: 15th Hqs. Troop; 29th, 30th Inf. Brigs.; 43d, 79th, 57th, 80th Inf.; 43d, 44th, 45th Machine Gun Bns.; 15th Arty. Brig. (43d, 44th, 45th Fld. Arty., 15th Trench Mortar Battery, 15th Amm. Train); 215th Fld. Sig. Bn.; 215th Engr. Regt. and Train; 15th Train Hqs. and M. P.; 15th Supply Train; 15th Sanitary Train (Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos. Nos. 257, 258, 259 and 260).

SIXTEENTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Organized at Camp Kearny, California, in the early part of Aug., 1918. The 21st and 32d Regular Army Infantry Regiments were ordered to Camp Kearny as a part of this division and these two regiments furnished the nucleus for the organization of the other infantry regiments of the division. The artillery brigade was organized on Sept. 13, 1918, from the 301st and 302d Regiments of cavalry. The engineer regiment was organized at Camp Humphries, Va., on Sept. 28, 1918, and joined the division at Camp Kearny on Oct. 27th. All other units of the division were organized at Camp Kearny and by the 1st of Oct., 1918, the division was undergoing intensive training in preparation for service overseas. Demobilization of the division was commenced in the middle of February and all organizations not belonging to the Regular Army were demobilized by March 8, 1919.

Maj.-Gen. David C. Shanks was the commanding general.

The division was composed of the following organizations: 16th Hqs. Troop; 31st, 32d Inf. Brigs.; 31st, 81st, 32d, 82d Inf.; 46th, 47th, 48th Machine Gun Bn.; 16th Field Arty. Brig. (46th, 47th and 48th Fld. Arty., 16th Trench Mortar Battery); 216th Engr. Regt. and Train; 216th Fld.

Sig. Bn.; 16th Train Hqs. and M. P.; 16th Amm. Train; 16th Sanitary Train (Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos., Nos. 261, 262, 263, and 264).

SEVENTEENTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Popularly known as the "Thunderbolt Division." A distinctive shoulder insignia was not adopted. Organized at Camp Beauregard, Alexandria, La., in the early part of August, 1918. The 5th and 29th Regular Army Infantry Regiments were ordered to Camp Beauregard as a part of this division and these two regiments furnished the nucleus for the organization of the two other infantry regiments of the division. The artillery brigade of the division was organized at Camp Bowie, Texas, and never actually joined the division at Camp Beauregard. The engineer regiment of the division was organized at Camp Humphries, Va., and joined the division at Camp Beauregard on Nov. 7, 1918. The majority of the units of the division were organized by the 1st of November and underwent intensive training in preparation for service overseas. Demobilization of the division was begun on Jan. 18, 1919, and all organizations not belonging to the Regular Army had been demobilized by Jan. 31, 1919.

Commanders of division: Col. H. E. Jackson, Aug. 6, 1918, to Sept. 1, 1918; Col. James A. Irons, Sept. 1 to Nov. 1, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Robert W. Mearns, Nov. 1, 1918 to Jan. 8, 1919; Maj.-Gen. Henry C. Hodges, Jr., Jan. 8, 1919, until demobilization.

The division was composed of the following organizations: 17th Hqs. Troop; 33d, 34th Inf. Brigs.; 5th, 83d, 29th, 84th Inf.; 49th, 50th, 51st Machine Gun Bn.; 17th Arty. Brig. (49th, 50th, 51st Fld. Arty., 17th Trench Mortar Battery); 217th Engr. Regt. and Train; 217th Fld. Sig. Bn.; 17th Train Hqs. and M. P.; 17th Supply Train; 17th Amm. Train; 17th Sanitary Train, (Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos., Nos. 265, 266, 267 and 268).

EIGHTEENTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Insignia, the figure "18" superimposed on a green cactus plant, under which is written "Noli me tangere." Organized at Camp Travis, Texas, on August 21, 1918. The 19th and 35th Regular Army Infantry Regiments were assigned to this division and these regiments furnished the nucleus for the organization of the other two infantry regiments of the division. The artillery brigade of this division was organized at Camp Stanley, Leon Springs, Texas, on August 14, 1918, from the 303d, 304th and 305th National Army Cavalry Regiments. This brigade joined the 18th Division at Camp Travis at the end of August. The engineer regiment of the division was organized at Camp Humphries in the early part of September, 1918, and joined the division at Camp Travis on November 9, 1918. All the units of the division except the engineer train were organized by the middle of October and undergoing intensive training in preparation for service overseas. Demobilization of the division commenced on

January 17, 1919, and demobilization of all organizations except those belonging to the Regular Army was completed on February 14, 1919.

Brigadier-General G. H. Estes was the commanding general.

The division was composed of the following organizations: 18th Hqs. Troop, 52d Machine Gun Bn., 35th Inf. Brig. (19th and 85th Inf., 53d Machine Gun Bn.), 36th Inf. Brig. (35th and 36th Inf., 54th Machine Gun Bn.), 18th Fld. Arty. Brig. (52d, 53d and 54th Fld. Arty., 18th Trench Mortar Battery), 218th Engrs., 18th Train Hqs. and M. P., 18th Amm. Train, 18th Supply Train, 18th Sanitary Train (Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos., Nos. 269, 270, 271 and 272).

NINETEENTH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Popularly known as the "Twilight Division." Insignia, black triangle with white tips on red circle on khaki ground. Organized at Camp Dodge, Iowa, September 1, 1918. The 2d and 14th Regular Army Infantry Regiments were assigned to this division and these regiments furnished the nucleus for the organization of the other two infantry regiments of the division. The artillery brigade of the division was organized at Camp Bowie, Texas, on August 14, 1918, from the 307th and 309th National Army Cavalry Regiments. In the early part of October the artillery brigade was ordered to Fort Sill, Okla., for training at the Field Artillery Brigade Firing Center. The brigade never actually joined the division at Camp Bowie. The engineer regiment was organized at Camp Humphreys, Va., on September 26, 1918. It remained in training at Camp Humphreys until the first of November when it joined the division at Camp Dodge. All other units of the division were organized and undergoing intensive training by the end of October and at the time of the signing of the armistice, the division was being rounded into shape for service overseas. Demobilization of the division was commenced on January 23, 1919, and all organizations not belonging to the Regular Army were demobilized by January 29, 1919.

Commanders of division: Col. W. C. Bennett, September 1, 1918, to September 26, 1918; Col. Armand I. Lasseigne, September 26 to Oct. 25, 1918; Brig-Gen. Benjamin T. Simmons, Oct. 25, 1918, until demobilization.

This division was composed of the following organizations: 19th Hqs. Troop, 55th Machine Gun Bn., 37th Inf. Brig., (14th and 87th Inf., 56th Machine Gun Bn.), 38th Inf. Brig. (2d and 88th Inf., 57th Machine Gun Bn.), 19th Fld. Arty. Brig., (55th, 56th and 57th Fld. Arty.), 19th Trench Mortar Battery, 219th Engr. Regt. and Train, 19th Train Hqs. and M. P., 19th Supply Train, 19th Amm. Train, 19th Sanitary Train (Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos. Nos. 273, 274, 275 and 276).

TWENTIETH DIVISION (REGULAR ARMY)

Organized at Camp Sevier, S. C., on Aug. 12, 1918. The 48th and 50th Regular Army Infantry Regiments were assigned to this division and these regiments furnished the nucleus for the organization of the other two infantry regiments of the division. The artillery brigade of the division was organized at Camp Jackson, S. C., and never actually joined the division at Camp Sevier. The organization of the division was about completed at the end of October and all units were undergoing intensive training in preparation for overseas service. All organizations not belonging to the Regular Army were demobilized by Feb. 28, 1919.

Commanders of division: Col. Louis J. Van Schaick, Aug. 9, to Aug. 18, 1918; Col. Lawrence B. Simonds, Aug. 18 to Aug. 27, 1918; Col. Wm. F. Grote, Aug. 27 to Sept. 30, 1918; Brig.-Gen. F. Leroy Sweetser, Sept. 30th until demobilization.

This division was composed of the following organizations: 20th Hqs. Troop; 39th, 40th Inf. Bn.; 48th, 89th, 50th, 90th Inf.; 58th, 59th, 60th Machine Gun Bn.; 20th Fld. Arty. Brig.; (58th, 59th, 60th Fld. Arty., 20th Trench Mortar Battery); 220th Engr. Regt. and Train; 220th Fld. Sig. Bn.; 20th Train Hqs. and M. P.; 20th Supply Train; 20th Amm. Train; 20th Sanitary Train (Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos., Nos. 277, 278, 279, and 280).

TWENTY-SIXTH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

The division received the popular name of "Yankee Division." Its shoulder insignia is a blue monogram YD superimposed on a diamond of khaki. Organized August 22, 1917, in Boston, Mass. Units of the division were made up from the National Guard troops of the New England States (Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Mass., Rhode Island and Connecticut), together with a contingent of National Army troops from Camp Devens. The first units sailed for France, Sept. 7, 1917, and during Sept. and Oct., 1917, the division was transported to France, through both English and French ports. Division headquarters was established at Neufchateau, France, Oct. 31st. The division went into line in the Chemin des Dames sector Feb. 6, 1918, was relieved from that sector March 18th, and moved to the La Reine sector northwest of Toul, entering the sector March 31st. The division left this sector June 28th and moved by rail to area east of Meaux. From July 5th to 18th, the division marched to support position behind line Torcy-Bois de Belleau-Vaux, northwest of Château-Thierry and took over the Pas Fini sector.

From July 18th to 25th it attacked, as a unit of the 1st Corps in the Aisne-Marne offensive (second Battle of the Marne), penetrating to a depth of seventeen kilometers. Was relieved July 25th and marched to an area in vicinity of La Ferté. It then moved by rail on Aug. 1st to 3d, to Chatillon training area. On Aug. 25th the division moved to area north of Bar-le-Duc and from there by marching to the Troyon sector where it entered the line. On Sept. 12th the division attacked in the St. Mihiel salient, penetrating as far as Vigneulles. From Sept. 13th to Oct. 7th, it and occupied the Troyon sector. On Oct. 8th, the division moved to consolidated vicinity of Vedun as army reserve. The division was engaged in operations north of Verdun from Oct. 18th to Nov. 11th. The division was relieved and proceeded to the eighth training area where headquarters was established at Montigny-le-Roi, Nov. 23d.

The following National Guard units were absorbed in forming the division:

Maine: 2d Inf., 1st Regt. Heavy F. A., 1–13 Co., C. D. C.

New Hampshire: 1st Inf., M. G. Troop Cav., Btry. A, F. A., Co. B, S. C.; Fld. Hosp. Co., No. 1 to 4th Cos., C. A. C.

Vermont: 1st Inf.

Massachusetts: 2d, 5th, 6th, 8th, 9th Inf.; Hqs. 2d Brig.; 1st Sq. Cav.; 1st and 2d Regts. F. A.; 1st Regt. Engrs.; Amb. Cos. 1 and 2; 1st F. S. Bn.; 1st to 12th Cos., C. A. C.

Rhode Island: 1st Sept. Sq. Cav.; 1st Bn. F. A., Amb. Co., No. 1.

Connecticut: 1st and 2d Inf.; 1st Sq. Cav.; Btrys. E and F, F. A.; Amb. Co., No. 1, Fld Hosp. No. 1.

Division commanders: Brig-Gen. Peter E. Traub, Oct. 31 to Nov. 11, 1917; Maj.-Gen. Clarence R. Edwards, Nov. 11, 1917, to Oct. 24, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Frank E. Bamford, Oct. 24, 1918, and in command Nov. 11th.

The following units composed the division: 51st and 52d Inf. Brigs.; 101st, 102d, 103d, 104th Regts. Inf.; 102d, 103d Machine Gun Bns.; 51st Arty. Brig.; 101st, 102d, 103d Arty. Regts.; 101st Trench Mortar Btry.; 101st Div. Machine Gun Bn.; 101st Engr. Regt. and Train; 101st Fld. Sig. Bn., 101st Train Hqs., and M. P.; 101st Supply Train; 101st Amm. Train; 101st Sanitary Train; 101st, 102d, 103d and 104th Amb. Cos., and Fld. Hosps.

This division captured from the enemy the following: 61 officers; 3,087 men; 16 pieces of artillery; 132 machine guns and numerous supplies. The division made a total advance against resistance of thirty-seven kilometers; 14,411 replacements were furnished this division. Battle deaths, 2,168; wounded, 13,000; Prisoners of war, 451. Distinguished Service Cross awards, 229

TWENTY-SEVENTH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Insignia, a black circle with a red border in which are the letters NYD in monogram, surrounded by the seven stars of the constellation Orion. Organized at Camp Wadsworth, S. C., in Sept. 1917. The New York National Guard as its nucleus, the following units being used: 1st, 2d, 3d, 7th, 12th, 14th, 23d, 71st and 74th N. Y. Inf., Squadron A, 1st N. Y. Cav.; 1st, 3d N. Y. Fld. Arty.; 22d N. Y. Engrs.; 1st Bn. N. Y. Sig. Corps; N. Y. Amm. Train; N. Y. Supply Train; N. Y. Sanitary Train; N. Y. Hqs. and M. P., 6th N. Y. Div. Hqs. Troop.

The division embarked for overseas at Newport News, Va., the first units sailing on May 8th, and the last arriving in France, July 7, 1918. It was ordered to a training area and later entered the line with British units opposite Mt. Kemmel. On Aug. 20th a move was made to the

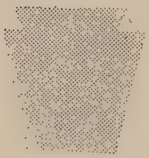
Dickebush sector, Belgium, which was occupied next day. On Aug. 31st the division was a front-line division in the attack on Vierstandt Ridge, the 30th U. S. Division on its left,—34th British Division on its right. As part of the 2d Corps (U. S.) 4th British Army, the division was in action near Bony, Sept. 24th to Oct. 1st. On Oct. 12th it again entered the line in the St. Soupiet sector crossing the Seille River in the attack on the Jonc de Mer Ridge.

Maj.-Gen. John O'Ryan, N. Y. National Guard, commanded the division from its organization until mustered out.

The division captured from the enemy the following: 2,358 prisoners and advanced eleven kilometers against resistance. During active operations it suffered the following losses: Killed, 1,791; wounded, 9,427; prisoners, three officers and 225 men. One hundred and thirty-nine Distinguished Service Crosses awarded.

The following organizations composed the division: 105th, 106th, 107th, 108th Regts. Inf.; 104th, 105th, 106th Machine Gun Bns.; 104th, 105th, 106th Fld. Arty. Regts.; 102d Trench Mortar Battery; 102d Engrs.; 102d Fld. Sig. Bn.; 102d Hqs. Train and M. P., 102d Amm. Train; 102d Supply Train; 102d Engr. Train; 102d Sanitary Train (105th, 106th, 107th, 108th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

TWENTY-EIGHTH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)



Known as the "Keystone Division." Insignia, a red keystone. Organized from units of the Pennsylvania National Guard at Camp Hancock, Ga., August 5, 1917. The majority of the officers and enlisted men were from the State of Pennsylvania. On November 15th the division was reorganized to conform to the new Tables of Organization.

The division commenced leaving the States April 21, 1918, moving through Camp Upton. It landed at Calais May 18th and trained with the British in the vicinity of Nielles les Blequin for about two weeks. It then moved to Gonesse where it trained with the French for another two weeks' period, and then moved to a sector near the Marne.

On July 1, 1918, two platoons of the 11th Infantry took part in an attack on Hill 204. On July 16th part of the infantry entered the line on the Marne River and the entire division was in sector on the Ourcq river by July 27, 1918.

The division was relieved on the night of July 30th–31st, and from then to August 6th was in rest in the vicinity of Jaulgonne on the Marne. On the night of August 6th–7th, it again entered the line on the Vesle river, the sector extending from about Courlandon on the east to Fismes on the west. Here it remained actively engaged until Sept. 8th, when it was relieved by a French division.

Upon relief of the division, it moved to a position south of the Argonne forest, and on Sept. 20th took partof the sector extending from Boureuilles on the east to Cote 285 on the west. It was one of the attacking divisions in the offensive of Sept. 26th, pushing as far as Châtel Chehery, where it was relieved on Oct. 9th. It then moved by bus to an area northeast of Commercy.

On Oct. 16th it took over a sector near Thiaucourt extending from northeast to Jaulny on the east to the southern end of Etang de Lachaussec on the west. It held this sector until the signing of the armistice and then went to the divisional training area.

To include May 15, 1919, the division's casualties were 2,531 battle deaths, and 13,746 wounded. Seven hundred and twenty-six individuals of this division were taken prisoners by the enemy.

Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 58.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. C. M. Clement to Dec. 11, 1917; Maj.-Gen. Chas. H. Muir, Dec. 15, 1917, to Oct. 24, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Wm. H. Hay, Oct. 24 to Nov. 11, 1918.

The units composing the division were as follows: 55th and 56th Inf. Brigs., 109th, 110th, 111th, 112th Inf. Regts.; 108th and 109th Machine Gun Bns.; 53d Arty. Brig.; 107th and 108th and 109th Arty. Regts.; 103d Trench Mortar Battery; 107th Div. Machine Gun Bn.; 103d Engr. Regt. and Train; 103d Fld. Sig. Bn.; 103d Train Hqs. and M. P.; 103d. Supply Train; 103d Amm. Train; 103d Sanitary Train; 109th, 110th, 111th, 112th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals.

TWENTY-NINTH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Known as the "Blue and Gray Division." Insignia, the Korean symbol of good luck, a circle bisected by two half circles, reversed and joined; one-half of the circle is blue, and the other gray. Composed of National Guards of New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia and Virginia.

Mobilized and trained at Camp McClellan under Major-General Wm. S. Haan, headquarters arrived overseas June 27, 1918. Activities of the division included the center sector of Haute Alsace and the Grand Montagne sector, north of Verdun. The division captured 2,187 officers and men, 21 pieces of artillery and 250 machine guns. After the armistice the division was stationed for some time at Bourbonne les Bain. It returned home and was demobilized in June, 1919.

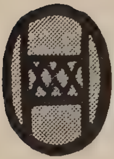
The division made a total advance against resistance of seven kilometers and captured 2,187 officers and men, 21 pieces of artillery and 250 machine guns. Battle deaths, 940; wounded, 5,219; prisoners of war, 67. Four thousand nine hundred and seventy-seven replacements were required by this division. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 150.

Maj.-Gen. Charles G. Morton commanded the division.

The following units composed the division: 29th Div. Hqs. Troop and Detachment, 57th Inf. Brig. (113th and 114th Inf. Regts. and 111th M. G. Bn.) the 58th Inf. Brig. (115th and 116th Inf. Regts. and 112th M. G.

Bn.) the 54th Arty. Brig. (110th, 111th and 112th Regts. of **Arty., 104th** T. M. Battery, 104th Amm. Ttrain) the 110th Machine Gun Bn., the 104th Fld Sig. Bn., the 104th Engr. Regt. and Train, the 104th Train Hqs., and M. P., the 104th Supply Train, the 104th Sanitary Train (113th, 114th, 115th and 116th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

THIRTIETH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)



Insignia, a monogram in blue of the letters "O" and "H", standing for "Old Hickory," the nickname of Andrew Jackson. The cross bar of the "H" contains the triple "XXX," the Roman numerals for thirty. The whole is on a maroon background. Organized at Camp Sevier, S. C., in October, 1917. This division was formerly the old 9th National Guard Division (1st, 2d and 3d Tenn. Inf.; 1st Tenn. F. A.; Tp. D, Tenn. Cav.; 1st Tenn. Field Hospital; 1st, 2d and 3d N. C. Inf.; 1st N. C. F. A.; 1st Sq. N. C. Cav.; 1st N. C. Engrs.; Co. A, N. C. Sig. Corps; N. C. Supply Train; 1st N. C. Field Hospital; 1st N. C. Amb. Co.; 1st and 2d S. C. Inf.; Co. A, S. C. Sig. Corps; 1st S. C. Field Hospital; Troop A, S. C. Cav.). In addition to the above the division was augmented by draft men from North and South Carolina, Tennessee, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota and North Dakota.

First units sailed for oversea on May 7, 1918, and the last units landed at Calais, France, on June 24, 1918. The division was ordered to the Eperlecques training area (Pas-de-Calais) and remained there until July 4th, when it was ordered into Belgium under command of the 2d British Corps and placed in support of the 33d and 49th British divisions. Division headquarters was located at Watou and it was here that this division received its first training in the line. On Aug. 17th the division took over the Canal sector extending from the southern outskirts of Ypres to Voormezelle and from Aug. 31st to Sept. 1st engaged in the battle before Mt. Kemmel. The division was then withdrawn and placed in reserve until Sept. 17th, when it was again sent into the line with division headquarters at Herissart. On Sept. 22d the division was placed under command of the 4th British Army and took over the Beaurevoir sector the following day. Participated in the battle of Bellincourt Sept. 29th–30th, which resulted in the breaking of the Hindenburg line. On Oct. 4th the division took over the line near Montbrehain where it attacked on four successive days making an advance of over 17,000 yards. On Oct. 17th participated in the Battle of La Selle river, and remained in the attack until Oct. 20th. The division was withdrawn to the Heilly training area immediately after the battle, where it was located at the signing of the armistice. On Nov. 24th the division was ordered to the Le Mans area preparatory to returning to the United States. The Divisional Artillery was not present for operations with the division, but was in active operations in the Toul sector, St. Mihiel offensive, Meuse-Argonne offensive and the Woevre sector.

This division captured from the enemy the following: 3,848 prisoners, 81 pieces of artillery and 426 machine guns. It made a total advance of twenty-nine and a half kilometers against resistance. Battle deaths, 1,652; wounded, 9,429; number taken prisoners, 6 officers and 71 men. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 177.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. John F. Morrison, from organization to Nov. 20, 1917; Maj.-Gen. C. P. Townsley, Nov. 20 to Dec. 17, 1917; Maj.-Gen. Geo. W. Read, April 27 to Aug. 10, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Edw. M. Lewis, Aug. 10 to Nov. 11, 1918.

The units composing the division were as follows: 59th, 60th Inf. Brigs., 117th, 118th, 119th, 120th Inf. Regts., 114th, 115th Machine Gun Bns., 55th Arty. Brig., 113th, 114th, 115th Arty. Regts., 105th Trench Mortar Battery, 113th Div. Machine Gun Bn., 105th Engr. Regt. and Train, 105th Fld. Sig. Bn., 105th Train Hqs. and M. P., 105th Supply Train, 105th Amm. Train, 105th Sanitary Train (117th, 118th, 119th, 120th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

THIRTY-FIRST DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Insignia, the letters "DD" back to back, in red, on a khaki shield. Organized at Camp Wheeler, Ga., on Oct. 1st, 1917. The nucleus of this division was composed of National Guard troops from Georgia, Alabama and Florida (1st and 2d Regts., Ala. Inf.; 1st Reg. Ala. Cav.; Co. A, Ala. Fld. Sig. Bn.; Field Hospital Co. No. 1; 1st, 2d and 5th Ga. Inf.; 1st Sq. Ga. Cav.; 1st Bn. Ga. Fld. Arty.; Co. A, Ga. Engrs.; Ga. Field Hospital No. 1). The division was bought up to full strength by National Army drafts from Illinois and Michigan. The 31st Division remained in training at Camp Wheeler until Sept., 1918.

The first units sailed for overseas on Sept. 16, 1918, and the last units arrived in France on Nov. 9, 1918. Upon arrival in France the division was designated as a replacement division and ordered to the Le Mans area. The personnel of most of the units were withdrawn from the division and sent to other divisions as replacements, causing the 31st to exist only as a skeletonized division.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. Francis J. Kernan, Aug. 25th, 1917, to Sept. 18, 1917; Maj.-Gen. John L. Hayden, Sept. 18, 1917, to March 15, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Francis H. French, March 15, 1918, to May 15, 1918; Maj.-Gen. LeRoy S. Lyon, May 15, 1918, to Nov. 11, 1918.

The units composing the division were: 61st, 62d Inf. Brigs., 56th Fld. Arty. Brig., 121st, 122d, 123d, 124th Inf. Regts., 116th, 117th, 118th Machine Gun Bns., 116th, 117th, 118th Fld. Arty. Regts., 106th Trench Mortar Battery, 106th Engr. Regt. and Train, 106th Fld. Sig. Bn., 106th Hqs. Train and M. P., 106th Amm. Train, 106th Supply Train, 106th Sanitary Train (121st, 122d, 123d and 124th Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos.).

THIRTY-SECOND DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Insignia, a flying red arrow with a red cross bar in the middle. Organized at Camp MacArthur, Waco, Texas, in Sept., 1917. This division was formerly the old 12th National Guard Division, composed of troops from Wisconsin and Michigan, (1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th and 6th Regts. Wis. Inf., 31st, 32d and 33d Mich. Inf., 1st Wis. F. A., and 1st Mich. F. A., 1st Wis. Cav. and 1st Mich. Cav., 1st Bn. Wis. Engrs. and 1st Bn. Mich. Engrs., 1st Wis. Fld. Sig. Bn., and 1st Mich. Fld. Sig. Bn., Wis. and Mich. Field Hospital and Amb. Cos. Nos. 1 and 2.)

First units of the division embarked for overseas at Hoboken on January 19, 1918, and the last units arrived in France, March 12, 1918. The division was ordered to the 10th training area with hdqs. at Prauthoy, Haute-Marne and was designated as a replacement division. On May 15, 1918, the status of the division was changed to a combat division and moved into Alsace where it took over a front-line sector near Belfort. The division held this sector until July 21st when it was relieved by the French and ordered to the Ourcq where it relieved the 3d Division in the Aisne-Marne offensive on July 30th. In this offensive the 32d Division broke the German line of resistance on the Ourcq and drove the enemy back to the heights north of the Vesle making a total advance of nineteen kilometers. On Aug. 28th it entered the front line northeast of Soissons as a part of the French 10th Army and contributed to an important extent to the success of the French in outflanking the German line on the Chemin-des-Dames. In this drive the 32d Division captured the strong German position on the Juvigny plateau, advancing to a depth of five and a half kilometers. On Sept. 2d the division was relieved by the 2d Moroccan Division and sent back to Joinville for a rest period. On Sept. 20th the division left the Joinville rest area and moved by bus to the Meuse-Argonne front. On Sept. 30th the division entered the front line before the Kriemhilde Stellung near Romagne-sous-Montfaucon. In a series of attacks during the next three weeks the division penetrated the enemy position to a depth of eight and a half kilometers. On October 20th the division was relieved and placed in the 3d Army Corps reserve until Nov. 6th when it again entered the line at the Dun-sur-Meuse bridgehead and on Nov. 10th attacked east of the Meuse, and was in line when the armistice was signed.

The division became part of the 3d Army upon its organization and on Nov. 17th began its march from Vilosnes-sur-Meuse to the Rhine and on Dec. 13th after marching 300 kilometers crossed the Rhine and occupied a sector in the Coblenz bridgehead with the 1st Division on the right and the 2d Division on the left.

This division captured from the enemy the following: 2,153 prisoners, 21 pieces of artillery and 190 machine guns. It made a total advance of thirty-six kilometers against resistance. Battle deaths, 2,898; wounded, 10,986; number taken prisoners, one officer and 155 men. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 134.

The 32d Division was composed of the following organizations: 63d and 64th Inf. Brigs., 125th, 126th, 127th, 128th Inf. Regts., 119th, 120th, 121st Machine Gun Bns., 57th F. A. Brig., 119th, 120th, 121st Fld. Arty. Regts., 107th Trench Mortar Batteries, 107th Engr. Regt. and Train, 107th Fld. Sig. Bn., 107th Hdqs. Train and M. P., 107th Amm. Train, 107th Supply Train, 107th Sanitary Train (125th, 126th, 127th and 128th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

THIRTY-THIRD DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Popularly known as the "Prairie Division." Insignia, a yellow cross on a round black patch. Organized at Camp Logan, Houston, Texas, about the middle of August, 1917. The nucleus of the division was the Illinois National Guard (1st and 2d Inf. Brig. Hdqs.; 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, 6th and 7th Inf. Regts.; 2d and 3d Regts. Fld. Arty.; Co. A, Signal Corps; 1st Engrs.; 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos.). The first organization left Camp Logan, April 23, 1918, for Camp Merritt. The rest of the division followed shortly afterward and sailed from Hoboken for France, disembarking at Brest. The last units arrived in France June 11, 1918.

Upon arrival in France the division was first sent to the Huppy area, near Abbeville, and on June 9th proceeded to the Eu training area. On June 20th and 21st the division moved into the Amiens sector, where it was trained under the British, occupying portions of the British trenches and participating in a number of small operations. On July 4th, Cos. C and E, 131st Inf., and A and G, 132d Inf. took part in the attack on Hamel, which was the first time American troops had fought with the Australians. On August 8, 1918, began the great British offensive, in which the 33d Division broke the German line at Chipilly Ridge and Gressaire Wood. On Aug. 23d it was transferred by rail from the British front to the area of the 1st American Army in the Toul sector, being concentrated on Aug. 26th in the region of Tronville-en-Barrois. On Sept. 5th it started for Verdun, where it relieved on the nights of Sept. 7th, 8th and 9th, the 120th French Division.

In the Meuse-Argonne battle, commencing Sept. 26th, the 33d Division formed the right of the 3d American Army Corps. For the next eleven days it formed the pivot of this corps. On Oct. 6th, the division was transferred to the French 17th Army Corps and participated (Oct. 8th) in the attack of the French 17th Corps east of the Meuse. Upon being relieved the 33d Division marched to the Troyon-sur-Meuse sector on the St. Mihiel front, relieving the 79th Division on the nights of Oct. 23d, 24th and 25th. From this date to include the date of the armistice the division participated in a number of minor operations in this sector.

This division captured from the enemy the following: 65 officers; 3,922 men, 100 pieces of artillery, 414 machine guns, 20 trench mortars and other material. It made a total advance against resistance of thirty-six kilometers. Battle deaths, 153 officers and 701 men; wounded, 153 officers and 6,844 men; missing 148 men; prisoners of war, one officer and 17 men.

Maj.-Gen. George Bell, Jr., U. S. Army, commanded the division from Aug. 16, 1917, to include Nov. 11, 1918.

Following is a list of the decorations conferred on individuals of this division: Congressional Medals of Honor, 8; Distinguished Service Crosses, 110; British Distinguished Service Orders, 1; British Military Crosses, 5; British Distinguished Conduct Medals, 5; British Military Medals, 41; French Croix de Guerre, 47; Belgian Order of Leopold, 1.

The following organizations composed this division: 65th and 66th Inf. Brigs., 129th, 130th, 131st and 132d Inf. Regts., 123d and 124th Machine Gun Bns., 58th Arty. Brig., 122d, 123d and 124th Arty. Regts., 108th Trench Mortar Battery, 122d Div. Machine Gun Bn., 108th Engr. Regt. and Train, 108th Fld. Sig. Bn., 108th Train Hqs. and M. P., 108th Supply Train, 108th Amm. Train, 108th Sanitary Train (129th, 130th, 131st and 132d Amb. Cos., and Field Hospitals).

THIRTY-FOURTH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Known as the "Sandstorm Division." Insignia, a black oval encircling a red bovine skull. Organized at Camp Cody, New Mexico, on Oct. 2, 1917. The division was made up of National Guard troops from Minnesota, Iowa, Nebraska, North Dakota and South Dakota. (Hqs. 1st Minn. Brig.; 1st, 2d and 3d Minn. Inf.; Minn. Field Hospital and Amb. Cos. No. 1; Hqs. 1st Iowa Brig.; 1st and 2d Iowa Inf.; 1st Sq. Iowa Cav.; 1st Iowa F. A.; 1st Bn. Iowa Engrs.; Co. C, Iowa Sig. Corps; Iowa Amm. Train; Iowa Field Hospitals and Ambulance Cos. Nos. 1 and 2; 4th, 5th and 6th Nebraska Inf.; Co. B, Nebraska Sig. Corps; 1st Regt. North Dakota Inf., and North Dakota Field Hospital Co. No. 1; 1st Regt. South Dakota Cav.). The 34th Division remained in training at Camp Cody, New Mexico, until Sept., 1918. The first units sailed for overseas on Sept. 16, 1918, via England, and the last units arrived in France on Oct. 24, 1918. Upon arrival in France, the division was ordered to the Le Mans area where it was broken up. In the early part of December, the division began its return to the United States by individual units.

Commanding Generals: Maj.-Gen. A. P. Blocksom, Sept. 18, 1917, to May 7, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Wm. R. Smith, Sept. 28 to Oct. 10, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Beaumont B. Buck, Oct. 17 to Nov. 7, 1918; Brig.-Gen. John A. Johnson, Nov. 7 to Nov. 11, 1918.

This division was composed of the following organizations: 67th, 68th Inf. Brigs., 69th Fld. Arty. Brig., 133d, 134th, 135th and 136th Inf. Regts., 125th, 126th, 127th Fld. Arty. Regts., 109th Trench Mortar Battery, 109th Fld. Sig. Bn., 109th Hqs. Train and M. P., 109th Amm. Train, 109th Supply Train, 109th Sanitary Train (133d, 134th, 135th and 136th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals), 109th Field Train, 109th Engr. Regt. and Train.

THIRTY-FIFTH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Insignia, the Santa Fe Cross. Organized at Camp Doniphan, Fort Sill, Oklahoma, Sept. 13, 1917, from the National Guard units of Missouri and Kansas. On April 11, 1918, it began leaving camp for Camp Mills, N. Y., and sailed for France April 25th, via Liverpool and Winchester, England, arriving in France, May 11th. It trained with the British first in the area of Eu until June 11th, from then until June 30th in the Arches area. From the training sector, it went into the trenches in the Vosges in the De Galbert and Gerardmer sectors. On Sept. 11th, it was sent to the St. Mihiel sector, where it acted as army reserve during the operations. On Sept. 21st, the division relieved a French division in the Grange le Compte sector. It next went into the Meuse-Argonne offensive Sept. 26th in the Vauquois sector until Oct. 1st, when it was withdrawn and sent to the vicinity of Conde-en-Barrois, where it arrived Oct. 12th, taking over the Sommedieue sector. From there it was sent on Nov. 9th to the training area near Commercy.

The division captured from the enemy the following: 781 prisoners, 24 pieces of artillery, 85 machine guns, and other material. It advanced twelve and one-half kilometers in the face of resistance. Battle deaths: 960, wounded, 6,894; captured, 169. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 17.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. W. M. Wright, Brig.-Gen. N. F. McClure, Maj.-Gen. Peter M. Traub.

The following organizations composed this division: 69th, 70th Inf. Brig., 137th, 138th, 139th, 140th Inf. Regts., 129th, 130th Machine Gun Bns., 60th Arty Brig., 128th, 129th, 130th Arty. Regts., 110th Trench Mortar Battery, 128th Div. Machine Gun Bn., 110th Engr. Regt. and Train, 110th Fld. Sig. Bn., 110th Train Hq. and M. P., 110th Supply Train, 110th Amm. Train, 110th Sanitary Train (137th, 138th, 139th, 140th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

THIRTY-SIXTH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Insignia, a light blue Indian arrow head on a round khaki patch with a khaki "T" superimposed. The division is sometimes popularly known as the "Lone Star" or "Panther Division." Organized at Camp Bowie, Texas, from Aug. 25th to Oct. 15, 1917. The officers and men were drawn largely from the states of Texas and Oklahoma. On July 4th the division left for Camp Mills, L. I. Sailed from Hoboken, N. J., on July 18th, units arriving at Brest, St. Nazaire, Le Havre and

Bordeaux, beginning July 30th, thence proceeding to the 13th training area in vicinity of Bar-sur-Aube. On Sept. 27th the division left for the Champagne section, detraining at Epernay and vicinity.

Commencing Oct. 6th the division took an active part in the operations of the 4th French Army, advancing a distance of twenty-one kilometers to the Aisne river where it was relieved on the night of Oct. 27th to 28th and withdrawn to the Thiaucourt rest area. On Nov. 18th the troops departed, by marching, for the 16th training area surrounding Tonnerre, arriving in billets in the Tonnerre area Nov. 28th.

This division captured from the enemy, 18 officers, 531 men, 9 pieces of artillery, 294 machine guns. It made a total advance against resistance of about twenty-one kilometers. Distinguished Service Cross awards, 24. Battle deaths, 591; wounded, 2,119; prisoners of war, 25.

Maj.-Gen. E. St. John Greble, U. S. A., organized and commanded the division for some time. Maj.-Gen. W. R. Smith, U. S. A., was in command during the latter part of the war.

The units composing the division were as follows: 71st and 72d Inf. Brigs., 141st, 142d, 143d and 144th Inf. Regts., 132d and 133d Machine Gun Bns., 61st Arty. Brig., 131st, 132d and 133d Arty. Regts., 111th. Trench Mortar Battery, 111th Amm. Train, 131st Div. Machine Gun Bn., 111th Fld. Sig. Bn., 111th Engr. Regt. and Train, 111th Supply Train (141st, 142d, 143d and 144th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

To form this division the following National Guard units were drawn from the states: Oklahoma: 1st Inf., Sq. Cav.; 1st Engrs. Bn.; F. H. Co. No. 1. Texas: 1st and 2d Inf. Brigs., Div. Hq. Troop; 3d, 4th, 1st, 5th, 6th, 7th Inf.; 1st Cav.; 1st and 2d F. A. Regts.; 1st Engrs. Bn.; Bn. S. C.; Hq. Trains and M. P.; Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals Nos. 1 and 2.

THIRTY-SEVENTH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Popularly known as the "Buckeye Division." Insignia, a red circle with a white border. Composed of National Guard of "Buckeye" State, Ohio. Organized at Camp Sheridan, Montgomery, Alabama, beginning in August, 1917, when the first units of the Ohio National Guard arrived, and completed in October when the last had reached camp. The division was built around the 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th and 10th Ohio Inf. Regts., 1st Ohio Fld. Arty., 1st Ohio Cav., 1st Ohio Engrs., and the Ohio Fld. Sig. Bn. On May 20th the division, less its artillery, was sent to Camp Lee, Virginia, where it was filled to war strength and on June 11th, Hqs. and Hqs. Troop, 134th Machine Gun Bn. and 73d Inf. Brig. began the movement to Hoboken, sailing on June 15th and arriving in France June 22, 1918. The 74th Inf. Brig. and Engrs. left Camp Lee June 21st and sailing via Newport News arrived in France July 5th. The F. A. Brig., Trench Mortar Battery, Sanitary Train, M. P., and 114th Vet. Section, left Camp Sheridan, Ala., June 14th for Camp Upton, sailing from there June 27th via England.

With the exception of the F. A. Brig. and Amm. Train (less small arms section) the division was sent to the Bourmont area for training, and on Aug. 4th went into the front lines in the Baccarat sector in the Vosges mountains where it trained under the 6th French Corps. On Sept. 16th it proceeded by rail to the vicinity of Robert-Espagne. After four days it was moved by bus to Recicourt and as part of the 5th Corps entered the Argonne drive at Avocourt. Relieved on Oct. 1st after having advanced to Cierges, the division was sent to Pagny-sur-Meuse from which point it was sent to hold a portion of the line in the St. Mihiel sector with headquarters at Euvesin. After nine days in this sector the division was withdrawn to Pagny-sur-Meuse and on Oct. 18th began its move by rail to Belgium where the Div. Hqs. at Hooglede in the Lys sector it was attached to the French Army 30th Corps on Oct. 22d. Advancing to and crossing the Escaut river the division was relieved from the front lines on November 4th and 5th and returned to Thielt for rest. On Nov. 8th the division was transferred to the 34th French Corps and again entered the lines along the Escaut river in a sector with Syngem as its headquarters. Forcing a crossing of the Scheldt (Escaut) river on the night of Nov. 10th 11th, the advance was begun early on the 11th and pushed forward some five kilometers to the towns of Dickele and Hindelgem where the armistice at 11 A. M. brought the fighting to an end.

The artillery was sent to Camp de Souge for training and assigned to the 1st Army in the Argonne offensive, never serving with its own division. It served successively with the 4th American Corps, 2d American Army, 2d French Colonial Army, and 17th French Corps. At one time the three regiments of the brigade served with three different divisions, the 28th, 33d, and 92d, and only joined the division just prior to its return to the United States.

Maj.-Gen. Charles G. Treat was the first commander of the division, being relieved April 24th. On May 8th, Maj.-Gen. Chas. S. Farnsworth commanded until its return to the States.

The division made the following captures from the enemy: Officers, 26; enlisted men, 1,474; artillery, nineteen 77's; four 105's; ten 155's; seven trench mortars; machine guns, 261, besides many rifles and a great deal of ammunition of all calibers. This division made a total advance against resistance of thirty and three-fourths kilometers. Battle deaths, 992; wounded, 4,931; prisoners of war, 23. One thousand two hundred and fifty replacements were furnished the 37th Division. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 25.

The following units composed this division: 73d and 74th Inf. Brigs.; 145th, 146th, 147th and 148th Inf. Regts.; 135th and 136th Machine Gun Bns.; 62d Arty. Brig.; 134th, 135th and 136th Arty. Regts.; 112th Trench Mortar Battery; 134th Div. Machine Gun Bn.; 112th Engr. Regt. and Train; 112th Fld. Sig. Bn.; 112th Train Hqs. and M. P.; 112th Supply Train; 112th Amm. Train; 112th Sanitary Train (145th, 146th, 147th and 148th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

THIRTY-EIGHTH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Insignia, a shield, the right half of which is blue and the left half red. The "C" and "Y" in white are superimposed on the shield, standing for "Cyclone Division." Organized at Camp Shelby, Miss., Aug. 25, 1917. This division was made up of National Guard units from Kentucky, West Virginia and Indiana. (1st Ind. Inf.; Brig. Hqs.; 1st, 2d, 3d and 4th Ind. Inf.; 1st Sq. Ind. Cav.; 1st Bn. Ind. Engrs.; 1st Bn. Ind. Sig. Corps; Ind. Amb. Cos. Nos. 1, 2 and 3, and Ind. Field Hospital Cos. Nos. 1 and 2; 1st, 2d and 3d Regts. Ky. Inf.; Co. B, Ky. Sig. Corps; Ky. Amb. Co. No. 1, and Ky. Field Hospital Cos. Nos. 1 and 2; 1st and 2d Regts. W. Va. Inf.) Upon arrival in France in the middle of October, 1918, the division was ordered to the Le Mans area, when it was broken up. Returned to the United States in December, 1918.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. Wm. H. Sage, Brig.-Gen. Edward M. Lewis, Brig.-Gen. Henry H. Whitney, Brig.-Gen. Wm. V. Judson.

The following organizations composed the 38th Division: 75th and 76th Inf. Brigs., 63d Fld. Arty. Brig., 149th, 150th, 151st and 152d Inf. Regts., 137th, 138th and 139th Machine Gun Bns., 137th, 138th and 139th Fld. Arty. Regts., 113th Trench Mortar Battery, 113th Engr. Regt. and Train, 113th Fld. Sig. Bn., 113th Hqs. Train and M. P., 113th Amm. Train, 113th Supply Train, 113th Sanitary Train (149th, 150th, 151st and 152d Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

THIRTY-NINTH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Insignia, a bull's eye; inner circle, red; middle, white; outer, black. Organized at Camp Beauregard, La., in Sept., 1917. This division was composed of National Guard troops from Louisiana, Mississippi and Arkansas (1st, 2d and 3d Regts. Ark. Inf.; Ark. Amm. Train; Ark. Field Hospital and Amb. Co. No. 1, 1st La. Inf.; 2d Separate Troop, La. Cav.; 1st Regt. La. F. A., and La. Field Hospital Co. No. 1; 1st and 2d Regts. Miss. Inf.; 1st and 2d Separate Sqs. Miss. Cav.; 1st Regt. Miss. F. A.; Co. A, Miss. Engrs., and Miss. Field Hospital Co. No. 1). The last units arrived in France on Sept. 7, 1918. Ordered to the St. Florent area (Sur Cher) and designated as the 5th Depot Division. Remained in this area, training the personnel to be used as replacements until about November 1st. The training cadres were then transferred to the 1st Depot Division at St. Aignan. On Nov. 30th the division in its skeletonized form was ordered to St. Nazaire for embarkation to the United States. Debarked at Newport News, Va., on Jan. 1, 1919, and went into camp at Camp Stuart, Va. On Jan. 9th, proceeded to Camp Beauregard, La., and on Jan. 13th demobilization was commenced.

Maj.-Gen. Henry C. Hodges was the commanding general of this division.

This division was composed of the following organizations: 77th and 78th Inf. Brigs., 64th Fld. Arty. Brig., 153d, 154th, 155th and 156th Inf. Regts., 140th, 141st, and 142d Machine Gun Bns., 140th, 141st, and 142d Fld. Arty. Regts., 114th Trench Mortar Battery, 114th Engr. Regt. and Train, 114th Fld. Sig. Bn., 114th Hqs. Trains and M. P., 114th Amm. Train, 114th Supply Train, 114th Sanitary Train (153d, 154th, 155th, and 156th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

FORTIETH DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Popularly known as the "Sunshine Division." Insignia, a golden sun superimposed on a blue circle. Organized at Camp Kearny, California in September, 1917. The division was made up from National Guard troops from California, Nevada, Utah, Colorado, Arizona and New Mexico. (1st Ariz. Inf.; 2d, 5th and 7th Calif. Inf.; 1st Calif. M. G. Troop, 1st Separate Squadron Calif. Cav.; 1st and 2d Calif. Fld. Arty.; Co. B, Calif. Sig. Corps; Calif. Field Hospital and Amb. Cos. Nos. 1 and 2; 1st and 2d Colo. Inf.; 1st Colo. Cav.; 1st Bn. Colo. Engrs.; Co. B, Colo. Sig. Corps and 1st Colo. Engr. Train; 1st New Mex. Inf.; 1st New Mex. Fld. Arty. and New Mex. Field Hospital Co. No. 1.) First units embarked for overseas on Aug. 7th and the last units arrived in France on Aug. 28th. Upon arrival in France the division was made a replacement division and was ordered to La Guerche (Cher) and became the 6th Depot Division. The division was then broken up and its personnel was used as replacements for combat divisions at the front.

Maj.-Gen. Frederick S. Strong commanded the division from the time of its organization.

The division was composed of the following organizations: 79th and 80th Brigs., 65th Fld. Arty. Brig., 157th, 158th, 159th, 160th Inf. Regts., 143d, 144th, 145th Machine Gun Bns., 143d, 144th, 145th Fld. Arty. Regts., 115th Trench Mortar Battery, 115th Engr. Regt. and Train; 115th Fld. Sig. Bn., 115th Hqs. Train and M. P., 115th Amm. Train, 115th Sanitary Train (157th, 158th, 159th, 160th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

FORTY-FIRST DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)

Known as the "Sunset Division." Insignia, a setting sun in gold on red background, over blue stripe. Organized at Camp Greene, N. C., September, 1917. The division was composed of National Guard troops from Washington, Oregon, Montana, Idaho, and Wyoming. (2d Ida. Inf.; Ida. F. H. Co. No. 1; 2d Mont. Inf.; 3d Ore. Inf.; Sep. Squadron Ore. Cav.; Sep. Bn. Ore. Engrs.; Batteries A and B, Ore. Fld. Arty.; 2d Wash. Inf.; 1st Squadron Wash. Cav.; M. G. Troop, Wash. Cav.; 1st Bn. Wash. Fld. Arty.; 1st Bn. Wash. Sig. Corps; Wash. F. H. Co. No. 1; 3d Wyo.

Inf.). The division remained in training at Camp Greene until October, 1917. On October 18, 1917, the first units embarked for overseas and the last units arrived in France on December 7, 1917.

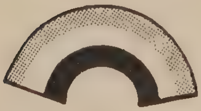
Upon arrival in France the division was designated as the 1st Depot Division and ordered to the St. Aignan training area. The division was then broken up and formed into training cadres for the instruction of replacements for combat division at the front. The 66th Artillery Brigade was left intact and after a period of training was attached to the 1st Corps on July 1, 1918, as Corps Artillery. This brigade served as Corps and Army Artillery throughout its service in France and was engaged in active operations in the Marne-Aisne, St. Mihiel and Meuse-Argonne offensives.

The 41st Division while serving as the 1st Depot Division from Jan. 1, 1918, to Dec. 31, 1918, forwarded from its area 263,395 replacements and casuals.

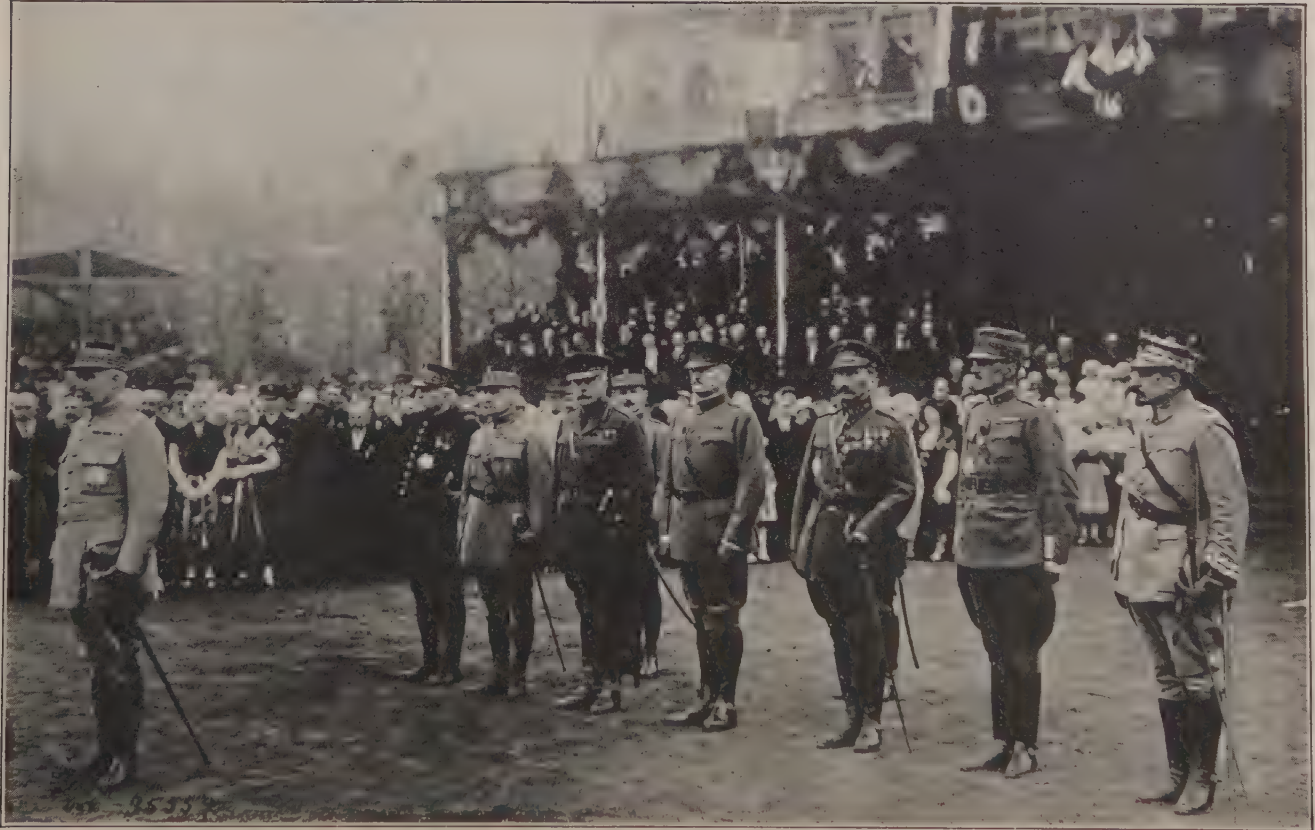
Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. Hunter Liggett, Aug. 16, 1917, to Jan. 17, 1918 (on D. S.); Brig.-Gen. Henry Jervey, Sept. 19 to Dec. 6, 1917; Brig.-Gen. Geo. LeR. Irwin, Dec. 6, 1917, to Jan., 9, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Richard Coulter, Jan. 23 to Feb. 14, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Robert Alexander, Feb. 14 to Aug. 10, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Wm. S. Scott, Aug. 10 to Oct. 24, 1918; Maj.-Gen. John E. McMahon, Oct. 24 to Nov. 7, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Eli Cole, Nov. 7 to Nov. 11, 1918.

The following organizations composed the division: 81st and 82d Inf. Brigs., 66th Fld. Arty. Brig., 161st, 162d, 163d and 164th Inf. Regts., 146th, 147th, 148th Machine Gun Bns., 146th, 147th, 148th Fld. Arty. Regts., 116th Trench Mortar Battery, 116th Engr. Regt. and Train, 116th Fld. Sig. Bn., 116th Hqs. Train and M. P., 116th Amm. Train, 116th Supply Train, 116th Sanitary Train (161st, 162d, 163d, and 164th Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos.).

FORTY-SECOND DIVISION (NATIONAL GUARD)



Known as the "Rainbow Division." Insignia, a rainbow on black field. Organized August 5, 1917. It was completely assembled at Camp Mills by September 13th. Composed of National Guard units, coming from every section of the United States. The following states were represented: New York (69th Inf.), Iowa (3d Inf.), Wisconsin (Cos. E, F and G, 2d Inf.), Indiana (1st F. A.), Maryland (3d and 4th Cos., C. A. C.), Kansas (1st Amm. Tr.), Oklahoma (Amb. Co. No. 1), District of Columbia (F. H. Co. No. 1), Ohio (4th Inf.), Pennsylvania (3d Bn. 4th Inf.), Illinois (1st F. A.), Minnesota (1st F. A.), California (1st Bn. Engrs.), New Jersey (Amb. Co. No. 1), Michigan (1st Amb. Co.), Nebraska (F. H. Co. No. 1), Colorado (F. H. Co. No. 1), Oregon (F. H. Co. No. 1), Alabama (4th Inf.), Georgia (Cos. B, C and F, 2d Inf.), Louisiana (1st Sep. Troop Cav.), South Carolina (1st Bn. Engrs.), North Carolina (Eng. Train), Texas (Supply Train), Virginia (1st and 2d Cos., C. A. C.), Tennessee (Amb. Co. No. 1), Missouri (1st Bn. Sig. Corps).



U. S. Official Photograph.

THE ALLIED GENERALS

A squad of famous soldiers honoring General Petain at Metz. The ceremony at Metz, when President Poincare of France bestowed the Baton of Marshal to General Petain, French Army, was attended by a memorable gathering of allied leaders. The "Squad" which aligned itself back of the new Marshal during the ceremony was composed of soldiers whose names are written in immortal history. Reading from left to right: Marshal Joffre, Marshal Foch, of the French Army; Field Marshal Douglas Haig, of the British Expeditionary Forces; General John J. Pershing, American Expeditionary Forces; General Gillain, Chief of Staff, of the Belgian Armies; General Albricci, of the Italian Army; General Haller of the Polish Armies. In the background is General Weygand, Chief of Staff to Marshal Foch, French Army. Metz, Alsace-Lorraine, France, December 8, 1918.

SURRENDER OF THE GERMAN HIGH SEAS FLEET

Actual photograph showing the greatest naval surrender in history—the German fleet arriving to surrender. *Below:* The commanders of the British and American fleets, Admirals Beatty and Rodman, the King of England, the Prince of Wales and Admiral Sims, commanding the American destroyer fleet, viewing the surrender.

On October 18, 1917, the division embarked for France. Division headquarters landed at St. Nazaire, November 1st. Debarkation complete December 7th. Debarked at St. Nazaire, Brest and Liverpool. Troops were assembled in the Vaucoulers training area. Division marched to La Fauche area beginning December 12th, thence to Rolampont area where it remained until February, 1918. Moved to vicinity of Luneville where they trained, serving in the line with corresponding French units. The division on March 23, 1918, was withdrawn preparatory to marching to another area, but orders were revoked and it relieved the 128th French Division in the Baccarat sector. It was relieved on June 21st and moved by rail to Camp de Chalons, and while preparing to go into more extensive training, news of impending German attack caused the division to be thrown into the line in the sectors of Souain and Experance as reserve, taking up the second position, also portions of the intermediate and outposts, under the 21st French Army Corps.

On July 15, 1918, the German attack against this corps was broken and the division was withdrawn by July 18th, moved by train and camion, and on July 25th it took over the front of the 1st United States Army Corps in the vicinity of Epieds. During subsequent attacks it drove the enemy for a distance of fifteen kilometers. Relieved August 3d, and moved by rail and marching to Bourmont area where it went into intensive training, moving to the St. Mihiel salient August 30th, where it delivered the attack from the south, being the center division of the 4th Corps, and advancing nineteen kilometers during two days' attack, September 12th and 13th. On October 1st, the division was relieved, moving to the Bois de Montfaucon on October 6th as reserve of the Fifth Army Corps. It relieved one of the line divisions north of Fleville-Exermont on October 13th in the Argonne, and attacking, advanced two kilometers. Division was relieved October 31st. The division again advanced to support the attack of November 1st, relieving a line division and advanced nineteen kilometers in two days to the Meuse river and the heights south of Sedan. On November 10th, the division withdrew and moved to Brandeville region, becoming a part of the Army of Occupation. On December 15th it moved to the Kreis of Ahrweiler, division headquarters being established at Ahrweiler, Germany.

Battle deaths, 2,713; wounded, 13,292; prisoners captured by enemy, 102. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 205.

The battles engaged in by the 42d Divsion entitling organizations to silver bands on their regimental color staffs were: (1) Luneville sector, Lorraine, February 21 to March 23, 1918; (2) Baccarat sector, Lorraine, March 31 to June 21, 1918; (3) Esperance-Souain sector, Champagne, July 4 to July 17, 1918; (4) Champagne-Marne defensive, July 15 to 17, 1918; (5) Aisne-Marne offensive, July 25 to August 3, 1918; (6) Aisne-Marne offensive, July 25 to August 11, 1918; (7) St. Mihiel offensive, September 12 to 16, 1918; (8) Essey and Pannes sector, Woevre, September 17 to 30, 1918; (9) Meuse-Argonne offensive, October 12 to 31, 1918;

(10) Meuse-Argonne, October 7 to November 1, 1918; (11) Meuse-Argonne offensive, November 5 to 10, 1918; (12) Meuse-Argonne offensive November 5 to 9, 1918.

The commanding generals: Major-General William A. Mann, September, 1917, to December 14. 1917; Major-General Charles T. Menoher, December 14, 1917, to November 7, 1918; Major-General Charles D. Rhodes, November 7, 1918 to November 11, 1918.

The units comprising the division were as follows: 83d and 84th Inf. Brigs., 165th, 166th, 167th and 168th Inf. Regts., 150th, 151st Machine Gun Bns., 67th Art. Brig., 149th, 150th, 151st Art. Regts., 117th Trench Mortar Battery, 149th Div. Machine Gun Bn., 117th Eng. Regt. and Train, 117th Field Sig. Bn., 117th Train Hq. and M. P., 117th Supply Train, 117th Amm. Train, 117th Sanitary Train, 165th, 166th, 167th, 168th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

SEVENTY-SIXTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Known as the "Liberty Bell Division." Insignia is a blue liberty bell superimposed on a khaki square. Organized at Camp Devens, Mass., in Sept., 1917. The division was composed of National Army drafts from Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island and Connecticut. The first units embarked for overseas on July 5, 1918, and the last units arrived in France on July 31, 1918. Upon arrival in France the division was designated as a depot division and ordered to the St. Aignan area. Here the division was broken up, training cadres were formed and the personnel used as replacements for combat divisions at the front. The special units, such as the Signal Battalion and Sanitary Troops, were sent forward as corps and army troops.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. H. F. Hodges, Aug. 25 to Nov. 27, 1917; Brig.-Gen. Wm. Wiegel, Nov. 27, 1917 to Feb. 13, 1918; Maj.-Gen. H. F. Hodges, Feb. 13 to Nov. 11, 1918.

This division was composed of the following organizations: 151st and 152d Inf. Brigs.; 151st Arty. Brig.; 301st, 302d, 303d and 304th Inf. Regts.; 301st, 302d, 303d Machine Gun Bns.; 301st, 302d, 303d Fld. Arty. Regts.; 301st Trench Mortar Battery; 301st Engr. Regt. and Train; 301st Fld. Sig. Bn.; 301st Hqs. Train and M. P.; 301st Amm. Train; 301st Supply Train; 301st Sanitary Train (301st, 302d, 303d and 304th Field Hospitals and Amb. Cos.).

SEVENTY-SEVENTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Named the "Metropolitan Division." Insignia, a gold Statue of Liberty on a truncated triangle of flag blue. Organized August 30th at Camp Upton. The majority of the officers were from New York City and the enlisted men were sent from New York City and Long Island, New York. On Oct. 10, 1917, many of the men were transferred to Camp Upton and Camp Greenwood, the vacancies caused thereby being filled by men from Camp

Devens, Mass., and from Northern New York State. The division began leaving Camp Upton on March 28, 1918, and sailed from Boston, Portland (Maine), via Halifax, and New York City. With the exception of the artillery, all units proceeded through Liverpool, across England and landed at Calais, France. The artillery sailed from New York in April and went direct to Brest, France.

The division moved immediately to a training area back of the British front near St. Omer and while being trained by the 39th British Division, was held in reserve to meet the anticipated German attack against the channel ports which never materialized. The artillery brigade on arrival moved to an American training area at Souges. On June 16, 1918, the division moved by train to the Baccarat sector. On July 12, 1918, the artillery brigade relieved the French artillery in the Baccarat sector. During the time spent in this sector the division held a broad frontage.

On Aug. 4th, the division moved to the Vesle sector in the neighborhood of Fismes, on Aug. 11th entering the line. With French troops on both flanks and forming a part of the 6th French Army, the division commenced the attack of the German positions north of the River Vesle on Aug. 18th, crossing the Vesle on Sept. 5th, and advanced its left flank to the River Aisne. The division was relieved Sept. 15th, moving for two days' rest to the region of Arcy-le-Poin Sart. Division began moving Sept. 17th by bus and marching to St. Menehould. On Sept. 21st, elements of the division moved into position in the Argonne trenches. By Sept. 25th the whole division was in position and on Sept. 26th attacked on the left of the 1st American Army in the Argonne forest. On Oct. 15th and 16th, the division was relieved and concentrated in the vicinity east of Cornay (1st Corps Reserve) where it was held in readiness for immediate use if required. During this time the division troops were employed in reorganizing the line of defense. On Oct. 25th, the division relieved a line division and continued in the attack until Nov. 12th, advancing from St. Juvin to the Meuse. Division was relieved Nov. 12th, and moved to the vicinity of Les Vignettes on Nov. 21st, and thence proceeded on Nov. 30th, to the 9th training area and established division headquarters at Château Villain.

The division captured from the enemy the following: 13 officers, 737 men, 44 pieces of artillery, 323 machine guns and numerous supplies. The 77th Division made a total advance against resistance of 71.5 kilometers. Battle deaths, 1,990; wounded, 9,966; prisoners of war, 404. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 146.

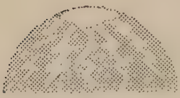
Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. J. Franklin Bell, Aug. 18, 1917 to May 18, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Geo. B. Duncan, May 18 to Aug. 24, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Evan M. Johnson, Aug. 24 to Aug. 31, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Robert Alexander, Aug. 31 to Nov. 11, 1918.

The units comprising the 77th Division were as follows: 153d, 154th Inf. Brigs., 305th, 306th, 307th, 308th Inf. Regts., 305th Machine Gun Bn., 152d Arty. Brig., 304th, 305th, 306th Arty. Regts., 302d Trench

Mortar Battery, 304th Div. Machine Gun Bn., 302d Engr. Regt. and Train, 302d Fld. Sig. Bn., 302d Train Hqs. and M. P., 302d Supply Train, 302d Amm. Train, 302d Sanitary Train (305th, 306th, 307th, 308th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

The well known "Lost Battalion" was a part of the 308th Infantry of this division.

SEVENTY-EIGHTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)



Known as the "Lightning Division." Insignia, crimson semi-circle with lightning flash in white. Organized about Aug. 25, 1917, at Camp Dix, New Jersey. The majority of the officers were from New York State and were trainined at Madison Barracks. Enlisted personnel from northern New York State, New Jersey and Delaware. About the middle of Oct., 1917, the division began the gradual transfer of over 13,000 enlisted men, more or less trained, to other camps. On May 8, 1918, the division began movement overseas. The artillery brigade landed in France and proceeded to Brittany for training. The infantry units landed in England on June 4th and 5th, and crossed to Calais, three or four days later. The last units of the division arrived in France June 11, 1918.

Infantry units began training June 17, 1918, behind the Hazebrouck front in the British area. On July 19th, the division moved to an area east of St. Pol and trained there until Aug., 19th, when the infantry units moved to the Bourbonne-les Bains area. On Aug. 31st, the division began moving to the St. Mihiel front, arriving Sept. 10th. It remained in 1st Corps Reserve until Sept. 15th and 16th, when it relieved the 2d and 5th Divisions. The artillery brigade had meanwhile come up to this front and was supporting the 90th Division. The division occupied the Limey sector until Oct. 4th when it was relieved and rejoined by the artillery brigade, moved to the Argonne forest. The division relieved the 77th Division on Oct. 16th and continued in the line until Nov. 5th, advancing twenty-one kilometers. On Nov. 6th the division, less artillery brigade and ammunition train, moved back to the Argonne camps west of Varennes, then to Florent, Les Islettes and to the south of St. Menehould. It entrained for the Semur training area on Nov. 15th.

This division captured from the enemy, 9 officers, 392 men, several pieces of artillery, numerous machine guns and quantities of other military supplies. It made a total advance against resistance of twenty-one kilometers or about thirteen miles. Casualties, 813, of which 63 were prisoners of war. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 95.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. Chase W. Kennedy, Aug. 23 to Dec. 27, 1917; Maj.-Gen. Hugh L. Scott, Dec. 28, 1917 to March 15, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Jas. T. Dean, March 16 to April 20, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Jas. H. McRae, April 20 to Nov. 11, 1918.

The units composing the division were as follows: 115th, 156th Inf. Brigs., 309th, 310th, 311th, 312th Inf. Regts., 208th, 309th Machine Gun

Bns., 153d Arty. Brig., 307th, 308th, 309th Arty. Regts., 303d Trench Mortar Battery, 307th Div. Machine Gun Bn., 303d Engr. Regt. and Train, 303d Fld. Sig. Bn., 303d Train Hqs. and M. P., 303d Supply Train, 303d Amm. Train, 303d Sanitary Train (309th, 310th, 311th, 312th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

SEVENTY-NINTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Known as the "Liberty Division." Insignia, a gray Lorraine cross on a blue shield-shaped field, the whole outlined in gray. Organized Aug. 25, 1917, at Camp Meade, Md. The officers for the most part were from Pennsylvania and the selected men in the early increments were drawn from eastern Pennsylvania, Maryland and District of Columbia. Beginning about this time large numbers of men were transferred to southern divisions and to special units throughout the United States. This continued until June, 1918. Approximately 80,000 men were trained in this division and only about 25,000 retained. The later increments came from New York. Ohio, Rhode Island and West Virginia. Commenced its overseas movement July 9, 1918, the majority embarking at Hoboken, and debarking at Brest. The 154th Fld. Arty Brigade embarked at Philadelphia and debarked in England, proceeding from there to a training area in France. The last units arrived in France Aug. 3, 1918. This artillery brigade joined the division after the armistice.

The division left Brest for the twelfth training area, but were diverted to the tenth training area around Prauthoy and Champlite. Left the training area for the Robert Espagne area by rail. Subsequently proceeding by bus on Sept. 16th relieved a division in sector 304 (Montfaucon).

The 79th Division under the 5th Corps made its first offensive in the Meuse-Argonne drive, advancing through Haucourt and Malancourt. On Sept. 27th they passed through Montfaucon and on Sept. 28th through Nantillois. They were relieved in this sector on Sept. 30th and passed to the command of the 2d Colonial French Corps, moving Oct. 8th to the Troyon sector (Fresnes-en-Woevre-Doncourt). Were relieved in this sector Oct. 26, 1918. Entered the Grand Montagne Sector (right of Meuse) and participated in the second phase of the Meuse-Argonne offensive, under the 17th French Corps, advancing through Borne-du-Cornouiller (Hill 376) on Nov. 6th, and through Damvillers and Wavrille on Nov. 9th. Ville-devant-Chaumont was passed on Nov. 11th. The division remained in same location and also took over area from Meuse river to Eresnes-en-Woevre until Nov. 26th. Moved to Souilly area south of Verdun, Dec. 27th.

Casualties, 3,223. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 80.

Maj.-Gen. Joseph E. Kuhn, U. S. A., commanded the division from Aug. 25, 1917.

EIGHTIETH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Known as the "Blue Ridge Division." Insignia, a shield outlined in white on a khaki background with three blue mountains superimposed. Organized August 27, 1917. at Camp Lee, Va. The majority of the officers were from New Jersey, Maryland and Virginia, and the enlisted men from Western Pennsylvania, Virginia and West Virginia. The division began leaving Camp Lee on May 17, 1918, and was embarked at Newport News for France. Its principal points of entry were St. Nazaire, Bordeaux, and Brest. The assembly point of the division was Calais, from which place it departed early in June for the Samur training area, with the British. The artillery was not trained in this area but rejoined the division September 13th. The last units of the division arrived in France June 19, 1918.

Division left Samur training area on July 4th, for Third British Army sector, where it arrived July 5th. All units trained with the British in the Artois sector; while in this sector the troops were attached to the British and were on active duty. On August 18th the units of the division proceeded by rail to the forteenth training area. On Sept. 1st it moved to the Stainville and later to Tronville area as reserve during the St. Mihiel operation. During this time one infantry regiment and one machine gun battalion were serving with the French, taking part in active operations. Commencing Sept. 14th, the division moved into the Argonne and began its preparation for the offensive in that region. On Sept. 26th, in conjunction with other American divisions, it attacked at Bethincourt, advancing a distance of nine kilometers in two days. On Sept. 29th it was relieved and assembled in the vicinity of Ouisy, where on Oct. 4th it again attacked, and over difficult ground attained a distance of four kilometers in nine days. On Oct. 12th the division was again relieved and proceeded by march and bus to the Thiaucourt area where it was re-equipped. On Oct. 23d to 24th it moved to the Le Neufour area where it remained until Oct. 29th, making preparations for the resumption of the Meuse-Argonne offensive. The division, on Oct. 29th, entered the line St. Georges-St. Juvin and on Nov. 1st made an attack on that line, penetrating in the next five days to a distance of twenty-four kilometers, being relieved the morning of November 6th. Upon relief it proceeded by marching to the Buzancy and Champ Mahaut areas. On the 18th of Nov. the division proceeded by march to the fifteenth training area, completing the march Dec. 1st.

The 155th F. A. Brigade after its relief from duty with the 80th Division, remained in the Cunel sector, serving successively with American divisions in that sector. It was in action for forty-eight consecutive fighting days. It proceeded by rail from Dun-sur-Meuse to the 15th training area, arriving Dec. 4th to 7th.

Battle deaths, 1, 141; wounded, 5,622; prisoners, 101. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 42.

Maj.-Gen. Adelbert Cronkhite, U. S. Army, commanded the division from Sept. 9, 1917.

The following units composed the division: 159th and 160th Inf. Brigs., 317th, 318th, 319th, 320th Inf. Regts., 314th, 315th M. G. Bns., 155th Arty. Brig., 313th, 314th, 315th Arty. Regts., 305th Trench Mortar Battery, 313th Div. Machine Gun Bn., 305th Engr. Regt. and Train, 305th Fld. Sig. Bn., 305th Train Hqs. and M. P., 305th Supply Train, 305th Amm. Train, 305th Sanitary Train (317th, 318th, 319th, 320th Amb. Cos., and Field Hospitals).

EIGHTY-FIRST DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Insignia, a silhouette of a wildcat on a khaki circle. The color of the wildcat varies according to the different arms of the service. Organized at Camp Jackson, S. C., in Sept., 1917. This division was made up of National Army drafts from North and South Carolina and Tennessee. The first units embarked for overseas on July 30, 1918, and the last units arrived in France, via England, on Aug. 26, 1918. Upon arrival in France the division was ordered to the Tonnerre (Yonne) training area where it remained in training until the middle of August. The division then proceeded to the St. Die sector (Vosges) where it held the line as a part of the 33d French Corps. On Oct. 19th the division was relieved and ordered to join the 1st Army for the Meuse-Argonne offensive. The division arrived in the Sommedieue sector early in November and was attached to the 2d Colonial Corps (French, as corps reserve. On Nov. 6th, it relieved the 35th Division in this sector and on Nov. 9th the division attacked the German positions on the Woevre plain, and was in the line when the armistice was signed. On Nov. 18th the division moved to the vicinity of Chatillon-Sur-Seine (cote D'or) and the artillery brigade which had heretofore formed a part of the 8th Corps, rejoined the division. On May 2d the division was placed under the control of the C. G., S. O. S., for return to the United States.

This division captured the following from the enemy: 5 officers, 96 men, 44 machine guns. The division advanced five and a half kilometers against resistance. Battle deaths, 250; wounded, 801; taken prisoners, 51. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 19.

Commanding generals: Brig.-Gen. Chas. H. Barth, Aug. 25 to Oct. 7, 1917; Maj.-Gen. Chas. J. Bailey, Oct. 8, 1917 to Nov. 11, 1918.

The following units composed the division: 161st, 162d Inf. Brigs., 321st, 322d, 323d, 324th Inf. Regts., 317th, 318th Machine Gun Bns., 156th Arty. Brig., 316th, 317th, 318th Arty. Regts., 306th Trench Mortar Battery, 316th Div. Machine Gun Bn., 306th Engr. Regt. and Train, 306th Fld. Sig. Bn., 306th Train Hqs. and M. P., 306th Amm. Train, 306th Sanitary Train, 306th Supply Train (321st, 322d, 323d, 324th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

EIGHTY-SECOND DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Known as the "All American Division." Insignia, the letters "A A" in gold on a circle of blue, the whole superimposed on a red square. Organized Aug. 25, 1917, at Camp Gordon, Ga. The majority of officers were from Georgia, Alabama and Florida. The enlisted men were from Georgia, Alabama and Tennessee. On Oct. 10th the majority of the enlisted men were transferred out of the division to other divisions and newly drafted men were sent from Camps Devens, Upton, Dix, Meade and Lee, which resulted in there being in the division, men from every state in the Union, but principally from the eastern states. The division began leaving Camp Gordon on April 9th, the movement continuing until May, and was through Camp Upton and England, except the artillery which landed in France. The first units left the United States April 25, 1918, and the last units arrived in France June 1, 1918. The main port of entry was Le Havre. Units, except artillery, engineers and signal corps, trained with the British in Escarbotin area, west of Abbeville. The artillery was trained at La Courtine.

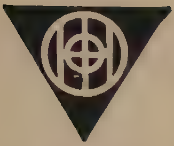
The division left Escarbotin June 16th and entered the Toul sector with a French Division on June 27th, occupied this quiet sector alone from July 18, 1918, to Aug. 9th, moved to Blanod les Toul training area, taking over the Sector Marbache, astride the Moselle on Aug. 19th and occupied it until Sept. 21st. This was a quiet sector except during the battle of St. Mihiel from Sept. 12th to 18th. Moved to the Thiaucourt area, west of Verdun by bus, and on Oct. 6th entered actively the Meuse-Argonne offensive, north of Varennes, continued in this offensive on the line in the Aire Valley up to St. Juvin and St. George until Oct. 30th, when it was withdrawn to the vicinity of Chene Tondu and Camp Bouzon. Thence on Nov. 2d to Florent-Les Islettes area, thence to Vaucouleurs training area, Nov. 4th, Beaumont training area, Nov. 10th, and to the tenth training area, on Nov. 15th (Prauthoy). Sailed from Bordeaux in April, 1919.

Casualties, 8,300, of which 169 were prisoners of war. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 34.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. Eben Swift, Aug. 25, 1917 to May, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Wm. P. Burnham, May to Oct. 10, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Geo. B. Duncan, Oct. 10 to Oct. 17, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Wm. P. Burnham, Oct. 24 to Nov. 7, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Geo. B. Duncan, Nov. 7 to 11, 1918.

The following units composed the division: 163d, 164th Inf. Brig., 325th, 326th, 327th, 328th Inf. Regts., 319th, 320th, 321st Machine Gun Bns., 157th Arty. Brig., 319th, 320th, 321st Arty. Regts., 307th Trench Mortar Battery, 307th Engr. Regt. and Train, 307th Train Hqs. and M. P., 307th Fld. Sig. Bn., 307th Supply Train, 307th Amm. Train, 307th Sanitary Train (325th, 326th, 327th, 328th Ambulance Companies and Field Hospitals).

EIGHTY-THIRD DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

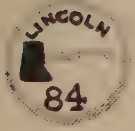


Insignia, a black triangle on which is superimposed a golden monogram of the letters O, H, I, O. Organized at Camp Sherman, Ohio, in Sept., 1917. The division was composed of drafted men from Ohio and West Virginia. First units embarked for overseas on June 4th and the last units arrived in France on June 21st. Upon arrival in France the division was designated as a depot division and was ordered to the Le Mans area. Here the division was broken up and the artillery brigade, and special units, such as engineer and signal troops were sent forward as corps and army troops. The other organizations of the division were held in the area and trained as replacements for the combat divisions at the front. Returned to U. S. Jan., 1919.

Maj.-Gen. Edwin F. Glenn commanded this dvision from the time of its organization until it was demobilized.

The division was composed of the following organizations: 165th and 166th Inf. Brigs., 158th Arty. Brig., 329th, 330th, 331st, 332d Inf. Regts., 322d, 323d, 324th Machine Gun Bns., 322d, 323d, 324th Fld. Arty Regts., 308th Trench Mortar Battery, 308th Engr. Regt. and Train, 308th Fld. Sig. Bn., 308th Hqs. Train and M. P., 308th Amm. Train, 308th Supply Train, 308th Sanitrary Train (329th, 330th, 331st, 332d Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

EIGHTY-FOURTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)



Popularly known as the "Lincoln Division." Insignia, a white disk, surrounded by a red circle, on which is superimposed "Lincoln 84" in blue and an axe with a red head and a blue handle. A red battle axe was also the symbol of this division. Organized at Camp Taylor, Kentucky, in Sept., 1917. The division was composed of National Army drafts from Indiana and Kentucky, and remained in training at Camp Taylor until Aug., 1918. Upon arrival in France, the division was designated as a depot division and ordered to the Le Mans area. Here the division was broken up and cadres were formed for training the personnel as replacements for combat divisions at the front. Returned to the U. S. in Jan., 1919.

Commanding generals were: Brig.-Gen. Wilbert E. Wilder, Aug. 25 to Oct. 6, 1917; Maj.-Gen. Harry C. Hale, Oct. 6, 1917 to Nov. 11, 1918.

This division was composed of the following organizations: 167th and 168th Inf. Brigs., 159th Fld. Arty. Brig., 133d, 134th, 135th, 136th Inf. Regts., 125th, 126th, 127th Machine Gun Bns., 325th, 326th, 327th Fld. Arty. Regts., 309th Trench Mortar Battery, 309th Engr. Regt. and Train, 309th Fld. Sig. Bn., 309th Hqs. Train and M. P., 309th Supply Train, 309th Amm. Train, 309th Sanitary Train (333d, 334th, 335th, 336th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

EIGHTY-FIFTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Popularly known as the "Custer Division." Insignia, a khaki circle on which are superimposed the letters "C D" in red. Organized at Camp Custer, Mich., in Oct., 1917. The division was composed of drafted men from Michigan and Wisconsin. First units embarked for overseas on July 21, 1918, and the last units arrived in France on Aug. 12, 1918. Upon arrival in France the division was designated as a depot division and ordered to Pouilly (Nievre). The division was then broken up and the special units were sent forward as corps and army troops. The infantry units were formed into training cadres for sending forward replacements to the combat division at the front.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. J. T. Dickman, Aug. 17 to Nov. 24, 1917; Brig.-Gen. S. W. Miller, Nov. 24 to Dec. 13, 1917; Maj.-Gen. Jas. Parker, Dec. 13, 1917, to Feb. 21, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Benj. C. Morse, Feb. 21 to 27, 1918; Maj.-Gen. C. W. Kennedy, Feb. 27 to Nov. 11, 1918.

This division was composed of the following organizations: 169th and 170th Inf. Brigs., 160th Fld. Arty. Brig., 337th, 338th, 339th, 340th Inf. Regts., 328th, 329th and 330th Machine Gun Bns., 328th, 329th, 330th Fld. Arty. Regts., 310th Trench Mortar Battery, 310th Engr. Regt. and Train, 310th Fld. Sig. Bn., 310th Hqs. Train and M. P., 310th Amm. Train; 310th Sanitary Train (Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals Nos. 337, 338, 339 and 340).

EIGHTY-SIXTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Popularly known as the "Black Hawk Division." Insignia, a black hawk and the monogram "B H" superimposed on a red shield. Organized at Camp Grant, Ill., in Sept., 1917. This division was composed of drafted men from Illinois. First units embarked for overseas on Sept. 8, 1918, and the last units arrived in France on Oct. 28th. Upon arrival in France the division was ordered to the Le Mans area where it was broken up and cadres were formed for training replacements for combat divisions at the front.

Commanding generals were: Maj.-Gen. Thos. H. Barry, Aug. 25, 1917 to Mar. 14, 1918; Brig.-Gen. L. W. V. Kennon, Mar. 14 to April 17, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Chas. H. Martin, April 18 to Nov. 11, 1918.

The division was composed of the following organizations: 171st and 172d Inf. Brigs., 161st Arty. Brig., 341st, 342d, 343d and 344th Inf. Regts., 331st, 332d, 333d Machine Gun Bns., 331st, 332d, 333d Fld. Arty. Regts., 311th Trench Mortar Battery, 311th Engr. Regt. and Train, 311th Fld. Sig. Bn., 311th Hqs. Train and M. P., 311th Amm. Train, 311th Supply Train, 311th Sanitary Train (341st, 342d, 343d and 344th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

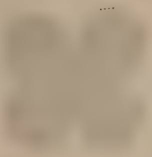
EIGHTY-SEVENTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Popularly known as the "Acorn Division." Insignia, a brown acorn on a green circle. Organized at Camp Pike, Ark., in Sept., 1917. This division was composed of drafted men from Arkansas, Louisiana and Mississippi. It remained in training at Camp Pike until June, 1918, when it was sent to Camp Dix, N. J. The first units embarked for overseas on Aug. 23d and the last units arrived in France on Sept. 13th. Upon arrival in France the division was turned over to the Service of Supply and ordered to Pons (Charente-Inferieure) where it was broken up and the units placed on various work in the intermediate section. The cadres of the division returned to the U. S. in Dec., 1918.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. Samuel D. Sturgis, Aug. 26 to Nov. 26, 1917; Brig.-Gen. Robt. C. Van Vliet, Nov. 27, 1917 to March 10, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Samuel D. Sturgis, March 10 to Nov. 11, 1918.

This division was composed of the following organizations: 173d and 174th Inf. Brigs., 162d Fld Arty. Brig., 345th, 346th, 347th, 348th Inf. Regts., 334th, 335th, 336th Machine Gun Bns., 334th, 335th, 336th Fld. Arty. Regts., 312th Trench Mortar Battery, 312th Fld. Sig. Bn., 312th Engr. Regt. and Train, 312th Hqs. Train and M. P., 312th Amm. Train, 312th Supply Train, 312th Sanitary Train (Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals Nos. 345, 346, 347 and 348).

EIGHTY-EIGHTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)



Insignia, two figure "8's" in blue crossed at right angles. Organized at Camp Dodge, Iowa, in Sept., 1917. This division was composed of National Army drafts from North and South Dakota, Minnesota, Nebraska, Iowa and Illinois. First units embarked for overseas on Aug. 8th and the last units arrived in France on Sept. 9th. Upon arrival in France the division was ordered to the twenty-first training area at Semur (Cote d'Or), except the artillery, which was sent to the vicinity of Bordeaux for training. On Sept. 14th the division was placed under the command of the 4th French Army and moved by rail to the Hericourt training area near Belfort and on Sept. 23d relieved the 38th French Division in the center sector (Haute-Alsace). The division held this sector until Nov. 2d when it was placed under the 4th American Corps and moved to the Lagney area (Meurth et Moselle) as part of the 2d Army Reserve where it was located at the time of the armistice. On Nov. 29th the division moved by marching to the first divisional training area at Gondrecourt (Meuse). On April 26, 1919, the control of the division passed to the C. G., S. O. S. Arrived in the U. S. on June 1st. The artillery did not rejoin the division but remained in training in the south of France until after the armistice, and was returned to the U. S. in Jan. 1919.

Battle deaths, 27; wounded, 63; number taken prisoners, 2 officers and 7 men.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. Edward H. Plummer, Aug. 25 to Nov. 26, 1917; Brig.-Gen. R. N. Getty, Nov. 26, 1917 to Feb. 9, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Edward H. Plummer, Feb. 19 to March 14, 1918; Brig.-Gen. R. N. Getty, March 15 to May 23, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Wm. D. Beach, May 24 to Sept. 28, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Wm. Weigel, Sept. 28 to Oct. 24, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Wm. D. Beach, Oct. 24 to Nov. 7, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Wm. Weigel, Nov. 7 to 11, 1918.

This division was composed of the following organizations: 156th, 157th Inf. Brigs., 163d Arty. Brigs., 349th, 350th, 351st, 352d Inf. Regts., 337th, 338th, 339th Machine Gun Bns., 337th, 338th, 339th Fld. Arty. Regts., 313th Trench Mortar Battery, 313th Engr. Regt. and Train, 313th Fld. Sig. Bn., 313th Hqs. Train and M. P., 313th Supply Train, 313th Amm. Train, 313th Sanitary Train (349th, 350th, 351st and 352d Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

EIGHTY-NINTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Popularly known as the "Middle West Division." Insignia, a black "W" in a black circle. Different colors are placed in the lower part of the "W" according to the various branches of the service. Organized at Camp Funston, Kansas in Sept., 1917. The division was composed of National Army drafts mainly from Kansas, Missouri and Colorado. In May, 1918, the division moved to Camp Mills, L. I. On June 4th, division headquarters and the majority of the division embarked from New York and the last units arrived in France on July 10th. Upon arrival in France the division was ordered to the Reynel training area (Haute-Marne) except the divisional artillery which was ordered to Camp Souge, near Bordeaux for training. The division remained in the Reynel area until Aug. 5th when it was moved by bus to the Toul front where it occupied the line between northeast corner of Bois de Bauchot to the middle of the Etang de Vorgevaux and was supported by the 55th Fld. Arty. and 250th Regiment French Fld. Arty.

On Sept. 12th the division participated in the St. Mihiel offensive as the right division of the 4th American Corps and advanced to a depth of twenty-one kilometers including the capture of the towns of Beney, Essey, Boullionville, Pannes and Xammes. On Oct. 7th the division was relieved in the Pannes-Flirey-Limey sector by the 37th Division and was moved by bus to the Recicourt area and became part of the 1st Army Reserve. On Oct. 12th the division moved forward in rear of the 32d Division as part of the 5th American Corps in the Argonne offensive and on Oct. 20th the division went into the line along the Sommerance-Romagne road just north of the Kriemhilde defense positions. The division attacked on November 1st and continued in the assault until the armistice was signed when it had crossed the Meuse north of Stenay.

The division was placed under the 7th Corps of the 3d Army and on Nov. 24th began its march into Germany. The division was assigned the area bounded by Kreise of Prum, Bitburg, Trier and Saarburg with division headquarters at Kyllburg where it was joined by the divisional artillery which had been serving with the 28th Division. On May 19, 1919, the division sailed for the U. S. and debarked at New York. It was then sent to Camp Funston, Kansas, where it was demobilized shortly afterwards.

The division captured from the enemy the following, 5,061 prisoners, 127 pieces of artillery, 455 machine guns. The division advanced thirty-six kilometers against resistance. Battle deaths, 1,419; wounded, 7,394; number taken prisoners, 1 officer and 24 men. The following decorations were awarded to individuals of this division: Congressional Medal of Honor, 8; Distinguished Service Crosses, 119; Distinguished Service Medals, 2; Croix de Guerre, 55; Belgian Cross L'Ordre Leopold, 1; Belgian Croix de Guerre, 2.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. Leonard Wood, Aug. 27, 1917 to Nov. 26, 1917; Brig.-Gen. Frank L. Winn, Nov. 26, 1917 to April 12, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Leonard Wood, April 12, 1918 to May 24, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Frank L. Winn, May 24, 1918 to Sept. 14, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Wm. M. Wright, Sept. 14, 1918 to Oct. 24, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Frank L. Winn, Oct. 24, 1918 to Nov. 11, 1918.

The division was composed of the following organizations: 177th and 178th Inf. Brigs.; 164th Arty. Brig.; 353d, 354th, 355th and 356th Inf. Regts.; 340th, 341st, 342d Machine Gun Bns.; 340th, 341st, 342d Fld. Arty. Regts.; 314th Trench Mortar Battery; 314th Engr. Regt. and Train; 314th Fld. Sig. Bn.; 314th Hqs. Train and M. P.; 314th Amm. Train; 314th Supply Train; 314th Sanitary Train (Field Hospital and Amb. Cos., Nos. 353, 354, 355 and 356).

NINETIETH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Known as the "Alamo Division." Insignia, red monogram of letters "T" and "O", symbolizing Texas and Oklahoma, the native states of the first members of the division. Organized Aug. 25, 1917, at Camp Travis, Texas, under the command of Maj.-Gen. Henry T. Allen. All of the first men in the division were from Texas and Oklahoma, those from Oklahoma being in the 179th Brigade and those from Texas in the 180th Brigade. From that time these brigades have been known as the Oklahoma and Texas Brigades. The 90th sent away great numbers of men to fill up Regular and National Guard divisions and to form special organizations of army, corps, and S. O. S. troops. The division was filled up with men from other camps, a large number coming from Camp Dodge, Iowa. The division commenced leaving Camp Travis early in June for Camp Mills. By June 30th all units had sailed from Hoboken. A few organizations went direct to France but the majority of the division landed in England. The 358th Infantry paraded before the Lord Mayor of Liverpool on July 4th, and was given a banquet by the city. Upon arrival in France the artillery brigade was sent to a training area near Bordeaux. The rest of the division was moved by train to the Aignay-le-Duc training area, northeast of Dijon. Headquarters of the division, 179th Brigade and 357th Infantry were at Aignay-le-Duc. Headquarters of the 180th Brigade and the 359th Infantry were at Recey-sur-Ource. The 358th Infantry was at Minot, and the 360th Infantry was at Rouvres. The division stayed six weeks in this area, training eight hours a day for the time when it should take its place in line.

The average advance made by the division in the St. Mihiel operation was six kilometers, in the Meuse-Argonne twenty-two kilometers; the division was under fire from Aug. 20th to Nov. 11th with the exception of seven days occupied in changing sectors; seventy-five days without a relief. During this time it went over the top in two major offensives and seven minor operations, and was still advancing when halted by the armistice. Formed part of Army of Occupation.

The division captured 42 pieces of artillery, 36 trench mortars, 294 machine guns, 903 rifles and immense quantities of ammunition and stores. It took as prisoners 32 officers and 1,844 men. Casualties amounted to 37 officers and 1,042 men killed; 62 officers and 1,257 men severely wounded; 123 officers and 4,671 men slightly wounded; 81 officers and 2,094 men gassed. The division received five official commendations for its individual work in the St. Mihiel and Meuse-Argonne operations. Never gave up a foot of ground to the enemy. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 57.

NINETY-FIRST DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Insignia, a green fir tree, emblematic of the Far West. The division is known as the "Wild West Division." Organized Aug. 25, 1917, at Camp Lewis, Washington. The majority of the officers were from California, Washington and Oregon. The enlisted men from California, Oregon, Washington, Utah, Idaho, Nevada, Montana and Alaska. The division began leaving June 19, 1918, for overseas, the move continuing until early in July and was through Camp Merritt, Camp Mills, England and France. First units sailed July 6, 1918, and the last units arrived in France July 26, 1918. All units of the division, artillery excepted, were trained in the eighth training area. The artillery was trained in the vicinity of Clermont-Ferrand.

The division left the eighth area, Sept. 6, 1918, and from Sept. 11th to 14th constituted a part of the reserves in the St. Mihiel offensive, moving thence to the northwest of Verdun, where it took part in the Meuse-

Argonne offensive, Sept. 26th, advancing from west of Avocourt to north of Gesnes. Continued in the offensive until Oct. 6th, when it moved to the Nattancourt area. One brigade stayed in the line with the 1st Division until Oct. 16th. On Oct. 19th, the division passed to the command of the King of Belgium. From Oct. 31st to Nov. 4th, the division, under the direction of the French Army, in Belgium, took part in the Lys-Scheldt offensive west of the Escaut (Scheldt) river in the vicinity of Audenarde. Nov. 10th and 11th, took part in the Lys-Scheldt offensive east of the Escaut (Scheldt) river in the vicinity of Audenarde. Nov. 22, 1918, detachment of division participated in the ceremony in connection with the entrance into the City of Brussels of the King and Queen of Belgium. In Dec., 1918 and Jan., 1919, the division moved to the Le Mans area. In March and April, it embarked for the U. S.

Casualties, 5,838, of which 23 were prisoners of war. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 19. German prisoners captured, 2,412.

Commanding generals: Maj.-Gen. Harry A. Greene, Aug. 25 to Nov. 24, 1917; Brig.-Gen. Jas. A. Irons, Nov. 24 to Dec. 23, 1917; Brig.-Gen. Frederick S. Foltz, Dec. 23, 1917 to March 2, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Harry A. Greene, March 2 to June 19, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Frederick S. Foltz, June 19 to Aug. 31, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Wm. H. Johnston, Aug. 31 to Nov. 11, 1918.

The units composing the division are as follows: 181st and 182d Inf. Brigs., 361st, 362d, 363d and 364th Inf. Regts., 347th, 348th Machine Gun Bns., 166th Arty. Brig., 346th, 347th, 348th Arty. Regts., 316th Trench Mortar Battery, 346th Div. Machine Gun Bn., 316th Engr. Regt. and Train, 316th Fld. Sig. Bn., 316th Train Hqs. and M. P., 316th Supply Train, 316th Amm. Train, 316th Sanitary Train (361st, 362d, 363d, 364th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

NINETY-SECOND DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Popularly known as the "Buffaloes." Insignia, a buffalo in black circle on khaki patch. Organized Oct. 29th at Camps Funston, Grant, Dodge, Upton, Meade and Dix. The officers and enlisted men coming from all parts of the United States.

On June 2, 1918, the division was assembled at Camp Upton for embarkation. From June 10th to 27, 1918, the division embarked at Hoboken. On June 19, 1918, the division headquarters arrived at Brest, France. On Aug. 29, 1918, after a period of training the division entered the line at St. Die in the quiet Vosges sector. Relieved on Sept. 20th. From Sept. 25th to 30th, the division was in the reserve of the 1st Army Corps in the Argonne-Meuse sector. From Sept. 24th to 30th, the 368th Infantry was brigaded with the 11th Curassiers under command of the 38th Army Corps (French) forming the liaison detachment between the French and American armies. Oct. 9th, it was in line in the

Marbach sector astride the Moselle river from Oct. 9th to Nov. 15th. The artillery brigade joined the division Oct. 23, 1918.

Battle deaths, 185; wounded, 1,495; prisoners, 17. Distinguished Service Crosses awarded, 21.

Commanding generals: Brig.-Gen. Chas. C. Ballou, Oct. 30 to Nov. 20, 1917; Brig.-Gen. John E. McMahon, Nov. 23 to Dec. 3, 1917; Maj.-Gen Chas. C. Ballou, Dec. 3, 1917 to Jan. 12, 1918; Brig.-Gen. Jas. B. Erwin, Jan. 12 to March 12, 1918; Maj.-Gen. Chas. C. Ballou, March 12 to Nov. 11, 1918.

The units composing the division were as follows: 183d and 184th Inf. Brigs., 365th, 366th, 367th, 368th Inf. Regts., 350th, 351st Machine Gun Bns., 167th Arty. Brig., 349th, 350th and 351st Arty. Regts., 317th Trench Mortar Battery, 349th Div. Machine Gun Bn., 317th Engr. Regt. and Train, 325th Fld. Sig. Bn., 317th Train Hqs. and M. P., 317th Supply Train, 317th Amm. Train, 317th Sanitary Train (365th, 366th, 367th and 368th Amb. Cos. and Field Hospitals).

NINETY-THIRD DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY—COLORED)

Insignia, a French helmet in blue, superimposed on a black disc. Organized at Camp Stuart, Newport News, Va., in Jan., 1918. The nucleus of the division was made up from the following units: 1st Sep. Co., Conn. Inf.; 1st Sep. Bn., D. C. Inf.; 8th Ill. Inf.; 1st Sep. Co., Md. Inf.; 1st Sep. Co., Mass. Inf.; 15th N. Y. Inf.; 9th Sep. Bn., Ohio Inf.; 1st Sep. Co., Tenn. Inf. This division was never organized to its full strength, only the 185th and 186th Infantry Brigades being formed. First units embarked for overseas on April 7, 1918, and the last units arrived in France on April 22, 1918. Upon arrival in France the two brigades consisting of the 369th, 370th, 371st and 372d Infantry Regiments, were broken up and brigaded with the French.

These regiments served in France as follows: July 1st to July 21st: 369th Inf. with 4th French Army in the line between Aisne and Ville-sur-Tourbe; 370th Inf. with 2d French Army; 371st Inf. with 13th French Army Corps in the line west of Avocourt; 372d Inf. with 13th French Army Corps in line east of Four-de-Taris. On Aug. 1st as follows: 369th Inf. with 8th French Army Corps in the Cienne la Ville region; 370th Inf. with 36th French Div.; 371st Inf. with 156th French Div.; 372d Inf. with 157th French Div. On Sept. 28th the 370th Inf. advanced across the Chemin-des-Dames. On Oct. 24th as follows: 369th Inf. with 4th French Army at Wesserling; 370th Inf. with 10th French Army at Euly; 371st and 372d Inf. with 2d French Army at Tlainfaing. These regiments returned to the United States in Feb., 1919, and were demobilized shortly afterwards.

Battle deaths, 574; wounded, 2,009; number taken prisoner, 1 officer and 3 men.

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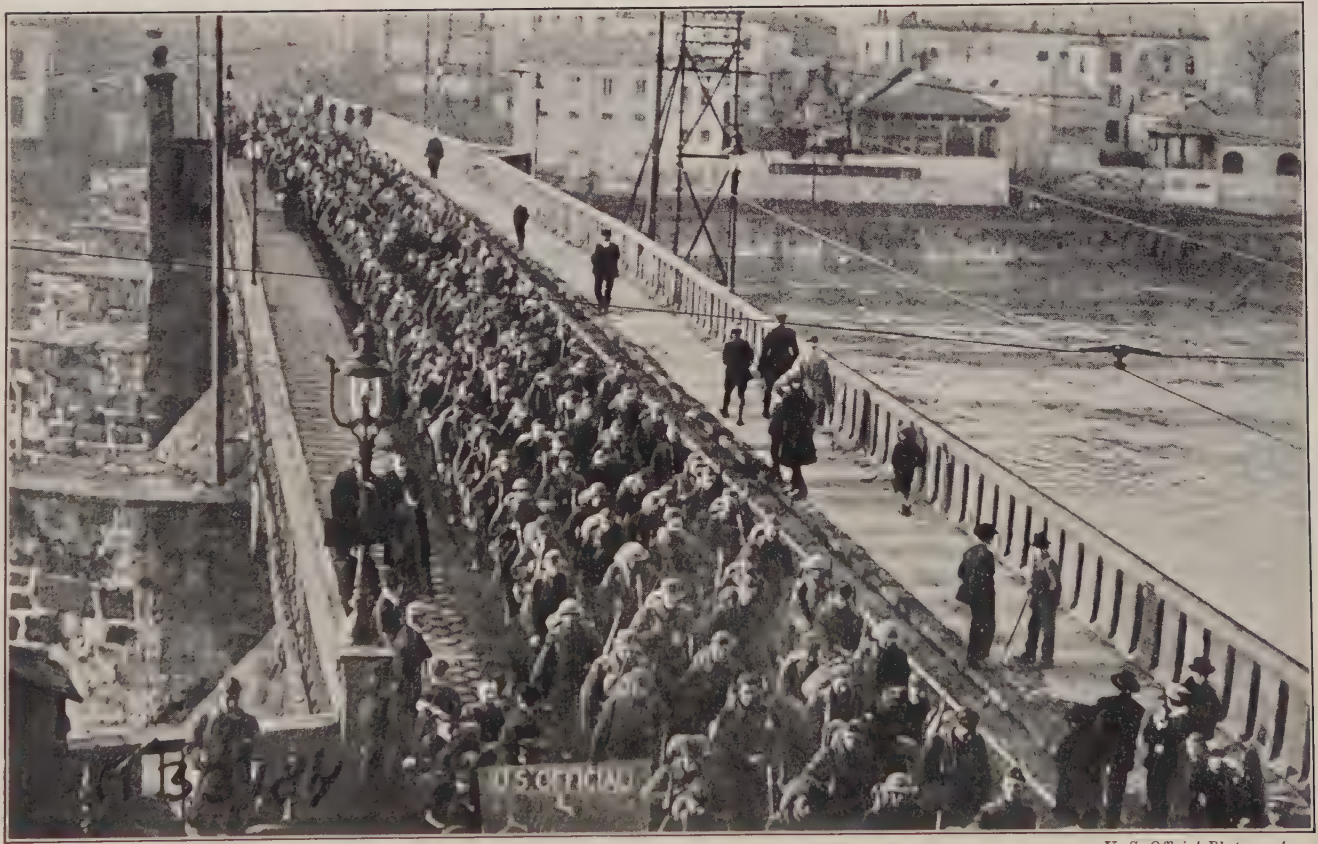
YANKEE "BLIMPS" IN GERMANY

U. S. Observation Balloons being sent up to keep the watch on the Rhine.

Photo from Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.

GIANT NAVY DIRIGIBLE STARTING OUT ON PATROL

The dirigibles of the navy did their full share in coast defense, sailing majestically along the coast line, they spied out the hiding places of the Hun submarines.



U. S. Official Photograph.

THE MARCH OF THE CONQUERORS

The 6th U. S. Infantry, 1st Division crossing bridge over the Moselle river, Treves, Germany December 1, 1918.

NINETY-FIFTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Organization of the 95th Division was begun at Camp Sherman, Ohio in September, 1918. The artillery brigade and the ammunition train were directed to be organized at Camp Taylor, Kentucky. The organization of the headquarters of all units of the division at Camp Sherman was completed, and equipment as far as obtainable was furnished.

Orders for the demobilization of the division were received during the first week in December.

Brig.-Gen. M. C. Smith commanded the division.

NINETY-SIXTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Organized at Camp Wadsworth, S. C., about the middle of September, 1918.

The following units were organized at Camp Wadsworth: Div. Hqs., 96th Div. Hqs. Troop, 361st Machine Gun Bn., 192d Inf. Brig. Hqs., (383d and 384th Inf., 363d Machine Gun Bn.), 321st Sanitary Train. The other Infantry Brigade (191st), including the machine gun battalion was to be organized in France from pioneer infantry regiments. The 171st Field Artillery Brigade was assigned to this division and was organized at Camp Kearny, California. The brigade never actually joined the division at Camp Wadsworth. This division was not completely organized and at the time of the signing of the armistice the strength of the entire division was slightly under 3,000 men. Maj.-Gen. Guy Carleton was the commanding general of the division.

NINETY-SEVENTH DIVISION (NATIONAL ARMY)

Organized at Camp Cody, Deming, New Mexico.

The division was composed of National Army drafts mainly from Oklahoma and Minnesota. These drafts constituted the personnel of the following units which were organized at Camp Cody: Div. Hqs., 387th and 388th Inf., 622d Fld. Sig. Bn., 366th Machine Gun Bn., 322d Hqs. Train and M. P., 322d Sanitary Train, 322d Supply Train. The 172d Field Artillery Brigade consisting of the 61st, 62d and 63d Field Artillery Regiments, 21st Trench Mortar Battery and 322d Ammunition Train was organized at Camp Jackson, South Carolina, under the command of Brig.-Gen. Dennis H. Currie. The nucleus of the 322d Engr. Regt. and Train was formed at Camp Humphrey, Va., but never joined the division. The 193d Infantry Brigade less 365th Machine Gun Battalion and the machine gun companies of the infantry regiment were to be organized in France. On Nov. 20, 1918, the War Department directed that the division be demobilized. The strength of the division at the time demobilization was commenced was 402 officers and 7,889 men.

Col. C. A. Martin, Inf., commanded the division from Sept. 26, 1918, to Oct. 19, 1918. Brig.-Gen. James R. Lindsay was then placed in command of the division and remained in command until demobilization.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE AMERICAN OPERATIONS IN FRANCE

THE following chronology of the major operations of the American Expeditionary Forces in France from April 28th to November 11, 1918, was prepared by General Peyton C. March, Chief of Staff of the United States Army, and was included in his report to the Secretary of War:

April 28–29, 1918—A sector in the vicinity of Breteuil, northwest of Montdidier, was occupied by the 1st Division.

May 28—Cantigny was captured by the 1st Division. A detachment of our troops, reinforced by French artillery, successfully attacked the enemy on a front of about 2,220 yards. We occupied Cantigny, captured some two hundred prisoners, and inflicted severe losses on the enemy.

June 10—The 2d Division attacked in Bois de Belleau, advancing the line nine hundred yards on a front of one and one-half miles, capturing three hundred prisoners, thirty machine guns, four trench mortars, and stores of small arms, ammunition, and equipment. Held all of Hill 204 down to the village on the northeast slope, thus preventing the enemy from concentrating his forces in the northern part of Château-Thierry.

June 11—The 2d Division continued its advance in the Bois de Belleau, capturing more prisoners and machine guns and two 77-millimeter fieldpieces.

Our aviators executed their first bombing raid, dropping numerous bombs on the railway station at Dommary-Baroncourt, northwest of Metz. All of our planes returned in safety.

The artillery of the 2d Division shelled the enemy in their areas, preventing concentration near Torcy, Monthiérs, Hill 128, and La Gonetrie farm. It discovered and dispersed a group of 210 machine guns in the wood south of Etrepilly. The 2d Division captured the last of the German positions in the Bois de Belleau, taking fifty prisoners, machine guns, and trench mortars.

July 18—French and American troops advanced under the cover of a heavy storm on the front between Soissons and Château-Thierry. The greatest advance was in the northern part of the sector, where a depth of five miles was attained, and we reached the heights southwest of Soissons, dominating the railroad and highways.

July 24—The advance of the Franco-American forces continued, and in the evening the line ran east of Buzancy to Tigny, to Hartennes, Grand Rozoy, Ouichy-le-Château, Armentières, Coincy, Courpoil, and then joined the old line at Jaulgonne. West of Rheims Marfaux was retaken and the line ran from Aubilly, through Mézy, and joined the old line at Coulommes.

July 25—The line ran from the Ourcq to the Marne, where the allied troops advanced six kilometers in the center and three to four kilometers on the flanks. The line in the evening ran from Armentières to Bruyéres, the eastern edge of the Bois de la Tourmelle, the eastern edge of Beuvardes, the eastern edge of le Charnel, the cross roads at Gros Chene, la Boulangére, the northern edge of Treloup, Chassins.

July 26—The line ran: Nanteuil, Notre Dames, Hill 123, Hill 118, la Misére, Hill 100, southwestern part of Bois de la Tournelle, Hill 111, le Charnel. Hard fighting continued all day and the French and Americans steadily advanced on Fére.

July 27—The 42d Division tried to cross the Ourcq, but was driven back by heavy artillery fire.

July 28—The 42d Division renewed the assault, crossed the river, and after vigorous fighting took Seringes-et-Nesles, Nesles, and Sergy.

The 28th Division held the line about one kilometer north of the Ourcq. During the day slow progress was made, the enemy slowly falling back after bitter rear-guard action.

July 29—Franco-American troops advanced three kilometers from Ouichy to Villers Agron and Bougneux, Saponay, Seringes, Nesles, and Cierges, were included within our lines.

July 30—Our pressure continued on the right bank of the Ourcq. The railroad station at Fére and Cayenne farm remained in our possession. We lost Seringes-et-Nesles but reoccupied Sergy, Hill 312, and the woods eight kilometers north of Ronchères.

July 31—The 28th Division retook Seringes-et-Nesles. The 32d Division attacked in Crompettes Woods with success; the woods were taken, and troops advanced to Cierges. German counter-attacks were brilliantly repulsed with the bayonet, and an immense amount of material and equipment was taken from the enemy.

August 3—After continuous fighting late in the evening Soissons was taken, and a line extending along the Vesle to between Braisne and Bazoches was being consolidated. South of the Aisne our troops drove back the enemy rear guard. Acting with the 4th Division, the 32d Division reached a line from Ville Savoye to a point just north of St. Gilles.

August 4—A large enemy patrol attacked in the vicinity of Coulee but was driven off by a combat group of the 5th Division, which had been reinforced. Our troops were very active in patrolling, having sent out over seven reconnaissance, combat, and ambush patrols.

The 32d Division took Fismes. In an eight-day battle this division forced the passage of the Ourcq, took prisoners from six enemy divisions, met, routed, and decimated a crack division of the Prussian Guards, a Bavarian division, and one other enemy division, and drove the enemy line back for sixteen kilometers.

August 6—The 28th Division launched an attack the objective of which was the north bank of the Vesle. The attack was met by exceedingly heavy machine-gun and artillery fire. On the right our troops succeeded in crossing the river and advancing to the highway which runs from Rheims to Soissons. On the left the advance was held up by the enemy's fire.

August 7—The units on the left advanced across the river and occupied the railroad lines on the north bank. The casualties resulting from this operation were considerable. A violent enemy counter-attack was completely repulsed, and a number of prisoners and machine guns were left in our hands.

August 8—As a result of successful operations on the evening of August 8th, eleven companies of infantry and some machine-gun detachments of the 28th Division reached the north bank of the Vesle.

August 10—The 28th Division launched an attack in Fismette. A creeping barrage moved ahead of them. They made some progress, but were soon exposed to flanking fire from both the east and the west and were forced to fall back into Fismette. The position here was very difficult. Flanking machine-gun fire came from both sides and heavy casualties were reported. A box barrage was placed around the town and ammunition was sent up. The town was held by one battalion, with one machine-gun platoon, which received orders to hold the position at all cost.

August 17—After strong artillery preparation the infantry of the 5th Division captured the village of Frapelle and consolidated the lines north of the road running into the town from the southeast.

August 19—The enemy continued shelling Frapelle positions and the artillery of the 5th Division replied actively.

August 21—The 5th Division repulsed hostile attack with heavy loss to the enemy and with no casualties to ourselves.

The 32d Division acting with the Tenth French Army advanced to and held Juvigny.

The 77th Division cleared the small wood between the Vesle and the railroad west of Château du Diable.

September 3—During the five days prior to September 3d the 32d Division made daily advances against the enemy, gaining six kilometers through very difficult terrain and against violent opposition. It captured eleven officers and nine hundred and twenty enlisted men. A large amount of guns and munitions were captured. A patrol of the 77th Division penetrated to Bazoches.

September 5—French and American units advanced in the Oise-Rheims area as far as Condé. Strong patrols of the 77th Division were pushed forward north of the Vesle and were encountered by machine-gun resistance. Our casualties were slight.

The 28th Division crossed the Vesle in force and pursued the enemy to the north.

September 6—The artillery of the 28th Division directed harassing and destructive fire on the Aisne bridges, while the enemy harassed the villages in our rear areas, using a great number of gas shells.

September 7—The 28th Division repulsed two enemy counter-attacks. The 77th Division drove the enemy out of La Cendiere Farm and passed the Aisne Canal.

September 12—After four hours' bombardment our troops advanced on the south and west flanks of the St. Mihiel salient at 5 A. M. By 7.30 A. M. the forces operating on the south had reached the southern edge of the Bois Juli, the Quart de Réserve, and the northern edge of the Bois de Mort Marc. By noon they had reached Essey and Vieville and the army operating in the difficult ground in the west had captured Les Eparges. At 6 P. M. the troops had reached a point one kilometer east of Senzey and had taken St. Remy and Combres. During the night the troops on the western flank of the salient advanced five miles in five hours, reaching Vigneulles by 3 A. M.

September 14—There was general advance along the entire line, and the American army established itself on the following front: Manheulles, Fresnes, Pintheville, St. Hilaire, Doncourt, northeast of Woel, south end of the Etang de Lachaussée, Vandieres, and across the Moselle at Champey.

September 17—American troops advanced along the Moselle within three hundred yards of Paguy.

September 18—The 26th Division made two raids during the night. One against St. Hilaire was without result, as the enemy had retired; the other against the Bois de Warville resulted in the capture of fifteen prisoners.

September 19—The 92d Division repulsed an attempted enemy raid in the St. Die sector.

September 20—The 92d Division repulsed two enemy raids in the region of Lesseux.

September 26—The 1st Army attacked northwest of Verdun on a front of twenty miles and penetrated to an average depth of seven miles.

September 27—The 107th Regiment of the 27th Division attacked east of Bellicourt and attained its objectives.

September 29—In the Argonne, the Americans met with furious resistance. Their losses were heavy, and they were unable to do more than hold their own.

September 30—The 27th and the 30th Divisions took prisoners north of St. Quentin totaling 210 officers and more than twelve hundred men.

October 1—The 28th Division repulsed a hostile counter-attack on the entire divisional front in the Aire Valley, with very heavy losses to the enemy.

October 3—The 2d Division, operating with the Fourth French Army, made an advance of two kilometers, reaching Medéah farm in the afternoon. In the evening the 2d Division advanced about three kilometers, and their line ran from Medéah farm southwest along the road to Blanc Mont. They captured one thousand prisoners, and casualties were estimated at five hundred.

October 4—The 1st Division attacked on both sides of Exermont, and made progress in spite of strong opposition from the enemy, who resisted with machine guns in organized opposition. Approximately three hundred prisoners were taken, and our casualties were fifteen hundred.

October 5—The 1st Division captured Ariétal farm, and the line was advance four hundred yards beyond. The 6th Division repulsed a large enemy raid on Sondernach.

October 7—A brigade of the 82d Division advanced seven kilometers, occupying Hill 223, north of Chatel Chéhéry; forty-six prisoners were captured, including one officer. Our casualties were light. Later the enemy counter-attacked and reoccupied Hill 223, north of Chatel Chéhéry.

October 8—The 59th Brigade of the 30th Division attacked, at 5 A. M., over a front of five thousand yards, gained all first objectives by 9 A. M., and second objectives by noon. Fifty officers, fifteen hundred men, and four 101-millimeter guns were taken.

October 8–9—The 2d Corps advanced about seven miles on a front of four thousand yards and captured about two thousand prisoners and thirty guns.

October 9—In spite of strong resistance the 1st Division advanced in the sector east of Fléville and captured two hundred and thirty prisoners.

The 33d Division, operating with the 17th French Army Corps, attacked early in the morning north of Consenvoye and reached its final objective about 9 A. M. About six hundred and fifty prisoners were taken.

October 10—The 1st Corps reached Cornay-La-Besogne Ridge and passed Malassise farm, east of Grand Ham.

The 60th Brigade of the 30th Division advanced six kilometers, reaching the Selle river, and held the St. Benin-St. Souplet-la Haie-Menneresse line. Up to the evening of the 9th, fifty officers, eighteen hundred men, and thirty-two guns were captured.

October 12—The 4th Division repulsed two counter-attacks by machine-gun fire, with severe loss to the enemy.

October 13—An attack on Grandpré this morning met very heavy machine-gun fire, and troops of the 2d Corps were finally forced to retire south of the Aire. A hostile counter-attack at 8 P. M. south of Landres-et-St. Georges was repulsed.

The 81st Division repulsed an enemy raid in St. Die sector.

The 77th Division took Grandpré.

October 17—The 29th Division advanced to the summit of Bois de la Grand Montagne, east of the Meuse.

The 42d Division took Côte de Châtillon.

The 2d Battalion of the 76th Division reached the northern edge of Bois des Loges, west of Champigneulle.

In an attack on a 4,000-yard front from St. Souplet to Molain our troops advanced three thousond yards against very stiff resistance. All counter-attacks repulsed. Prisoners taken were estimated at twenty-five hundred.

October 19—The 30th Division attacked with the British at dawn and advanced two thousand yards. Prisoners captured since the morning of the 17th totaled forty-four officers and over fifteen hundred men.

The 78th Division pushed their lines forward to Bellejoyeuse farm and began to mop up the Bois des Loges.

October 21—In attacks on the Bois des Rappes the 5th Division met with stubborn resistance by machine guns, supported by artillery and infantry fire. It captured the entire position with one hundred and seventy prisoners, including five officers. An enemy counter-attack, supported by heavy artillery fire, was repulsed with heavy losses.

The 5th and 3d Divisions took Hill 297 and Bois des Rappes.

Attacking in the evening, the 89th Division occupied the northern and eastern edge of the Bois de Bantheville.

October 23—Troops of the 3d Corps reached the ridge north of the village of Bantheville, taking 171 prisoners.

The 29th Division captured the ridge of Bois d'Etrayes and Hill 361.

October 27—The 78th Division entered Bellejoyeuse farm, northeast of Grandpré, and found it unoccupied. The occupation of the right of way north and northwest of Grandpré was completed.

October 30—On October 30th patrols were active along the entire front of the 28th Division. The 33d Division, in the face of heavy artillery and machine-gun fire, north of Grandpré, advanced its lines and occupied the Bellejoyeuse farm. On October 30th, two thousand high explosive and gun shells fell in the vicinity of Fresnes. One of the divisional patrols captured five prisoners.

November 1—The troops of the 1st Army captured Clery-le-Grand. North of Ancreville they took fifty-three additional prisoners and continued their advance into the Bois des Bantheville. During the night of November 1st–2d the troops of the 37th Division consolidated their positions and effected a crossing of the River Scheldt, confronted by enemy machine-gun and rifle fire. The 91st Division, supported by artillery and machine-gun fire, rapidly advanced over six kilometers in spite of enemy artillery and machine-gun fire. The enemy was driven from the west bank of the Scheldt and at noon the heights northwest of Audenarde were taken.

November 2—On the evening of November 2d the troops of the 78th Division drove the enemy from the Bois des Loges and closely followed his retreat. The 92d Division, in spite of machine-gun resistance, pushed forward and advanced the line three kilometers.

November 3—The 91st Division, in spite of active machine-gun resistance, forced their way towards the bank of the Scheldt in the vicinity of Eyne.

November 4—On November 4th a brigade of the 79th Division attacked an enemy sector, taking eighty-one prisoners and eight machine guns, encountering strong resistance and repulsing several counter-attacks.

November 5—On November 5th the troops of the 77th Division engaged in severe fighting, overcame strong enemy resistance along the entire line. The artillery was active, firing on the enemy's retreating columns. Harassing artillery fire was returned by the enemy. Aviation was active on both sides. The enemy flew over our front lines and delivered machine-gun fire on our advancing troops. Two enemy planes were brought down.

November 6—Our troops of the 1st Corps continued their successful advance, forcing the enemy to retire. The towns of Flabas, Raucourt, Haraucourt, and Autrecourt were taken, and patrols pushed on as far as the Meuse. Large quantities of material were captured during the advance.

Following heavy bombardment on the enemy's divisions the troops of the 5th Division attacked, rapidly overcoming the enemy's resistance, capturing Lion-devant-Dun, Murvaux, Fontaine, and Vilosnes-sur-Meuse, taking more than two hundred and fifty prisoners.

November 7—The troops of the 2d Division cleared the west bank of the Meuse of the remaining machine guns and snipers in the vicinity of Mouzon. The 5th Division, supported by artillery fire, continued their advance despite the enemy's continued resistance principally with machine guns. Most of the artillery crossed to the east bank of the

Meuse, following in support of the infantry. Additional prisoners were taken, including two officers and one hundred and thirty-two men.

November 8—The patrols of the 2d Division crossed the Meuse south of Mouzon. The troops of the 33d Division, aided by barrage fire, carried out a successful raid on Château Aulnois, capturing one officer and twenty-two men. Strong combat patrols were sent out from the lines of the 92d Division (colored). Prisoners were captured and casualties inflicted on the enemy.

November 9—On midnight of November 9th the patrols of the 5th Division drove back the enemy, inflicting many casualties and capturing six prisoners. The troops consolidated and, despite stubborn resistance, principally from machine guns, drove the enemy from Bois du Canol and La Sentinelle and captured Brandeville. In these operations forty-seven prisoners, one hundred and twenty-five machine guns, and other material were captured. A strong combat patrol was active along the entire front of the 33d Division, meeting with heavy machine-gun resistance from the enemy, and a patrol of one company captured eight prisoners in the Bois de Warville. The troops of the 79th Division advanced in a generally north-easterly direction, with the right flank in Bois de Damvillers. The 42d Division and units of the 1st seized the heights south of Sedan.

November 10—The 33d Division carried out a successful raid on Marcheville, occupying the town and taking eighty prisoners, including three officers. Strong patrols from the line engaged in sharp fighting. The 37th Division, operating with the 34th French Army Corps, attacked in order to force a crossing of the Scheldt. Violent enfilading machine-gun fire, heavy artillery, and the flooded condition of the terrain delayed the construction of bridges and crossings. In the face of continuous heavy artillery fire, supported by machine guns, the troops advanced about two kilometers, the 90th Division advanced toward Baâlon, encountering no resistance. The 92d Division reached Bois Frehaut and captured 710 prisoners.

November 11—The 3d Division advanced three kilometers east of Bréhéville. Despite increased resistance by machine-gun and artillery fire, the 5th Division continued to advance, capturing eighteen prisoners, three large caliber guns, six minenwerfers, and considerable material. In accordance with the terms of the armistice, hostilities on the front of the American armies ceased at 11 A. M.

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